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**INVESTIGATING NEW ZEALAND WORKERS'
WILLINGNESS TO PROVIDE EXPATRIATES WITH
INFORMATION AND SOCIAL SUPPORT IN THE NEW
ZEALAND WORKPLACE**

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ABSTRACT

New Zealand organisations are required to ‘import’ expatriates to fill skills shortages in the labour market caused by ‘brain drain’. A major contributor towards retaining expatriates in their New Zealand jobs for as long as possible is the amount of help, such as information and social support, expatriates receive from their local co-workers. The present study set out to explore New Zealand workers’ willingness to provide information and social support to expatriates, and subsequently understand New Zealand workers’ psychological motivations for providing help to expatriates in New Zealand workplaces. Specifically, the present study tested the *similarity* of expatriates’ countries-of-origin to New Zealand, the *social dominance* of expatriates’ countries-of-origin and the *threat* that expatriates pose to finite work-related resources as psychological motivators for providing or withholding help to expatriates. Fifty-six Subject Matter Experts who had approximately 13 years experience with observing relationships in New Zealand workplaces completed an online scenario-based questionnaire. The questionnaire presented seven fictitious expatriates from Britain, Australia, Canada, South Africa, USA, Japan and India, and asked participants to estimate the typical helping preferences of New Zealand workers towards the above expatriates. Kendall’s Tau rank correlation coefficients (τ) indicated that, as suggested by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts, New Zealand workers’ willingness to provide information was related to their willingness to provide social support for expatriates from Australia, Canada, South Africa and USA; but not for expatriates from Britain, Japan and India. Overall, as rated by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts, Sign tests indicated that New Zealand workers were *most* willing to help a) British and Australian expatriates, then b) Canadian, South African and American expatriates, and lastly, c) Japanese and Indian expatriates. Kendall’s tau rank correlation coefficients (τ) indicated that the above pattern of preferences for helping was largely influenced by *similarity* and *threat* of expatriates; specifically, New Zealand workers, as rated by Subject Matter Experts, were *more* willing to help *more similar* and *more threatening* expatriates. In the present study, *social dominance* of expatriates’ countries-of-origin was not rated as a significant predictor of New Zealand workers’ willingness to help expatriates. The discussion presents various implications for stakeholders involved with expatriate transfers to New Zealand.

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This thesis is dedicated to Elva Evelyn van Rooyen (“Gran”)
1930 - 2010

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Approximately a quarter of the New Zealand population chooses to live outside New Zealand due greater financial opportunities overseas (Catley, 2001; Collins, March 12, 2005; Harvey, May 2, 2010; Legat, November, 1999). As a result, New Zealand experiences the highest level ‘brain drain’ compared with other developed nations (Collins, March 12, 2005). ‘Brain drain’ is a skills shortage in the labor market caused by loss of human capital through the net outflow of highly skilled individuals (Catley, 2001; Glass & Choy, 2001).

Organisations can alleviate the immediate labor demand caused by ‘brain drain’ by ‘importing’ skilled foreigners who work and live in New Zealand for a temporary amount of time, otherwise known as expatriates (Business NZ, 2008; Collins, March 12, 2005; New Zealand Immigration Service, May 2001). Due to the costs incurred by expatriate failure, such as turnover and poor work performance (Lee, 2007), the problem that consistently faces organisations is how to prevent expatriate failure (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Lee, 2007). This is especially important for organisations in New Zealand who, as a result of ‘brain drain’, may experience difficulties in finding suitably-skilled replacements for expatriates who underperform or choose to terminate their contract early (Collins, March 12, 2005).

Scholars investigating overseas assignments have consistently agreed that organisations are more likely to retain expatriates and maintain high performance if expatriates are able to adequately adjust to the host culture (Aycan, 1997; Black, 1988; Lee, 2007; Tung, 1981). Adjustment is generally defined as “the degree of psychological comfort the respondent feels in the new situation” (Gregersen & Black, 1990, p. 463) and is an attempt by the expatriate to “fit in” to the host culture (Aycan, 1997). Although largely ignored in the past, recent research has used theories of domestic newcomer adjustment to new workplaces to suggest that local counterparts in the workplace, such as co-workers, supervisors, subordinates and workplace mentors, are able to facilitate expatriate adjustment via the provision of help, such as information and social support (Black, 1988; Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001;

Toh, 2004; Toh & Denisi, 2007). The present study aims to investigate New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information and social support to expatriates, and subsequently understand New Zealand workers' psychological motivations for providing help to expatriates in New Zealand workplaces.

The Relationship Between Information and Social Support as Helping Behaviours

Throughout Industrial/Organisational Psychology research and other related domains, researchers have consistently drawn upon the comparison between task- versus relationship-focused behaviours in theories such as leadership (Bass, 1990; Stogdill, 1950) and coping (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986). Leaders are often categorized into task- versus relationship-oriented leaders, where the former tends to focus on goal achievement and the latter tends to focus on supporting their followers (Bass, 1990; Tabernero, Chambel, Currel, & Arana, 2009). Similarly, coping strategies are differentiated into problem- and emotion-focused coping (Coyne & Smith, 1991). Problem-focused coping strategies are focused on *solving* the stressful situation whereby emotion-focused coping strategies are focused on *managing* the emotional outcome of the stressful situation (Coyne & Smith, 1991; O'Brien & DeLongis, 1996). Researchers have suggested that problem-focused coping is effective in controllable situations whereby emotion-focused coping is effective in uncontrollable situations, such as ill health (Coyne & Smith, 1991; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). In the present context, expatriates may predominantly use problem-focused rather than emotion-focused coping, and visa-versa, according to the controllability of stress associated with adjusting to a new cultural and work environment. In turn, the type of help that is provided to expatriates by New Zealand workers may be differentiated into problem- versus emotion-focused help to match, and therefore effectively facilitate, the coping strategies used by expatriates (i.e., problem or emotion-focused coping).

Although previous literature has stated the importance of information and social support for expatriate adjustment (Black, 1988; Black, et al., 1991; Kraimer, et al., 2001; Toh, 2004; Toh & Denisi, 2007), no researchers to our knowledge have extended the problem- versus emotion-focused distinction to these helping behaviours. In the present project, it is proposed that provision of information can be regarded as a form of problem-focused helping that is aimed at providing expatriates with a solution to the

problem itself; conversely, social support may be regarded as a form of emotion-focused helping that is aimed at helping expatriates cope with the emotional effects of stress.

What is the relationship between provision of problem-focused help and provision of emotion-focused help? According to their analysis of coping strategies used by 100 men and women aged 45-64, Folkman and Lazarus (1980) found that participants usually used both problem- and emotion-focused coping strategies in *conjunction* with one another rather than choosing one *or* the other; in other words, problem- and emotion-focused coping are not mutually exclusive and are indeed positively correlated. Therefore, with regards to helping behaviours, New Zealand workers may perceive a need to supply expatriates with problem-focused help (information) *as well as* emotion-focused help (social support) to facilitate both problem- and emotion-focused coping. Accordingly, the first hypothesis predicts that New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information will increase with their willingness to provide social support, and *visa-versa*, *regardless* of expatriate country-of-origin (H1).

However, despite their potential benefits, provision of information and social support to expatriates is often not included in co-workers' job descriptions or formally rewarded (Organ, 1997; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Toh & Denisi, 2007). Otherwise known as organisational citizenship behaviours, extra-role behaviours, such as provision of information and social support, are voluntary acts that are not directly related to forms of reward or punishment and often benefit the employing organisation (Organ, 1997). As a result, local workers have to be otherwise motivated to provide information and social support to expatriates at work (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Despite the above-mentioned importance of providing information and social support to expatriates, the psychological motivations underlying the voluntary provision of information and support to expatriates is yet to be examined in the literature. This omission represents a serious gap in the knowledge required for facilitating expatriate adjustment, and subsequently, retaining expatriates in New Zealand workplaces for as long as possible.

Psychological theories

Coates and Carr (2005) investigated psychological theories, such as those mentioned below, as explanations for the biases experienced by skilled migrants during the

selection process for New Zealand jobs (otherwise known as “access bias”). As distinct from “access bias”, the present study investigates these theories in relation to “treatment bias”; that is, the psychological motivations underlying the treatment of expatriates, such as the provision of information and social support, in the New Zealand workplace *after* expatriates have gained access to jobs in New Zealand. As a result, the following section draws on psychological theories that pertain to relationships between individuals and groups to help identify the underlying processes regarding New Zealand workers’ internal motivations for providing information and social support to expatriates in the New Zealand workplace.

Similarity Attraction Theory

As mentioned previously, local workers’ provision of information and social support to expatriates is often not considered part of one’s formal job requirements, and can therefore be classified as voluntary acts of organisational citizenship behaviours (Organ, 1997; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Toh & Denisi, 2007). Similarity Attraction Theory can be considered a viable framework for considering the role of similarities between local workers and expatriates as a motivation for local workers to provide information and social support to expatriates.

Similarity Attraction Theory posits that people tend to be attracted to others who are similar to themselves (Heine, Foster, & Spina, 2009). Research has suggested that attraction occurs through various mechanisms of similarity, including attitudes (Byrne et al., 1971; Condon & Crano, 1988), socio-economic status (Donn Byrne, Clore, & Worchel, 1966), personality (Griffitt, 1966), interests (Hogan, Hall, & Blank, 1971), occupation (Bond, Byrne, & Diamond, 1968), demographic variables such as age, ethnicity, education and religion (Buss, 1985) and even similarity in first or last names (Jones, Pelham, Carvallo, & Mirenberg, 2004). Early theorists suggest that individuals are attracted to others who are similar due to principles of reward and reinforcement. For example, Byrne et al. (1971) suggests that individuals find congruent attitudes satisfying and incongruent attitudes frustrating whereas Newcomb (1956) suggests that sharing similar interests with others is rewarding via provision of increased opportunities to interact.

In the expatriate adjustment literature, cultural differences between expatriates and local workers are commonly referred to as the degree of cultural novelty (Black, et al., 1991) or cultural distance (Church, 1982). Authors have generally found that expatriates find it *more* difficult to adjust to *novel* cultures due to intercultural differences (David, 1971; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Van Vianen, De Pater, Kristof-Brown, & Johnson, 2004). For example, Graham (1983) conducted a longitudinal study investigating adjustment in Hawaiian, Samoan, Tongan, New Zealand Maori, Fijian, Chinese, Japanese, Filipino and American Caucasian students at a Hawaiian university. The authors measured adjustment using the Bell Adjustment Inventory and the IPAT Depression Inventory, and hypothesized that students originating from the most different culture would experience the most stress associated with adjustment. Samoan culture was found to be most different in values, norms, language, diet, education, resource availability at home, concepts of time and ways of thinking. In support of the author's hypothesis, Samoan students found it most difficult to adjust, with language differences posing the greatest barrier to adjustment. Furthermore, Samoan and Chinese students reported cultures that were at opposite extremes and as a result tended to experience greater intergroup conflict.

A possible explanation for greater adjustment difficulties in more novel cultures is that some expatriates may find it difficult to become recipients of local workers' helping behaviours due to recognizable disparities that exist between home and host cultures (Varma, Budhwar, Pichler, & Biswas, 2009). According to the similarity-attraction paradigm, New Zealand workers will be less attracted to expatriates with more pronounced intercultural differences, which may reduce New Zealand workers' willingness to provide helping behaviours, such as information and support (Krebs, 1970; Varma, et al., 2009).

Past research has confirmed that similarity and interpersonal liking tends to influence helping behaviours. Emswiller, Deaux and Willits (1971) suggest that similarity in features, such as appearance, is an indication of wider similarity, which engenders attraction towards these individuals and results in a greater willingness to help. In their study, experimenters dressed in clothes that were either typical to hippies or formal clothes that indicated a more 'straight' manner of dress. The experimenters approached subjects whose appearance resembled either one of the above categories, and asked to

borrow a dime for a telephone call. The authors found that subjects were significantly more willing to lend money to experimenters who resembled their own appearance.

Karylowski (1976) also confirmed the link between similarity, attraction and altruistic motivations, but instead used interests as a point of similarity. The author asked 122 Polish participants to name their ten most and ten least preferred activities out of a choice of 75. In addition, participants were asked to rate common personal traits on attractiveness. The author then asked participants to complete a task that involved scoring points for a partner (collaborator). In a break midway through the task, participants were able to see their partners' most and least preferred activities, which were manipulated as being dissimilar (80% different) or similar (80% similar) to the participants' ratings. Participants were asked to guess their partners' personal traits and continue with the task. The author judged participant attraction to their partner according to the number of attractive traits (as rated previously by participants) assigned to the partner, and altruistic motivations by the difference between points scored for partners before and after viewing of the partners' most and least preferred activities. Results confirmed that individuals are more likely to be attracted to, and work harder to help, similar rather than dissimilar others.

In sum, the above literature suggests that expatriates are more likely to be helped by New Zealand workers if they are liked, which, according to Similarity Attraction Theory, is more likely to be those expatriates who originate from more similar cultures. Indeed, this is demonstrated by Varma, et al. (2009) who has conducted the only empirical study to date that investigates local workers' willingness to help expatriates based on the similarity-attraction paradigm. The authors investigated the role of Chinese values, such as collectivistic orientations and *guanxi* (meaning the formation of networks that represent reciprocal helping relationships), and interpersonal affect (liking) on the willingness of Chinese workers to provide expatriates with information and social support. Two hundred and twelve business students in China were given a questionnaire that provided demographic information about an expatriate and were asked to imagine the expatriate as a co-worker. With all other demographic variables kept constant, the authors manipulated expatriate similarity via country of origin (USA or India) and sex (male or female) so that participants received one of four possible expatriate combinations. Participants were then asked to answer questions regarding

collectivism, *guanxi*, interpersonal affect and willingness to provide the expatriate with role information and social support. The authors found that participants endorsed Indian expatriates as more similar to Chinese culture, regardless of sex, and as a result tended to like Indian expatriates more than American expatriates. A greater liking toward Indian expatriates resulted in an inclusion into *guanxi* networks and a greater willingness to provide Indian expatriates with role information and social support.

Social Identity Theory

Although Similarity Attraction Theory can be used to explain why similar expatriates are more successful at adjusting to a host culture than more different expatriates, a large number of studies also draw on Social Identity Theory as a theoretical framework for this finding (for example, Olsen & L, 2009; Toh & Denisi, 2007; Varma, Toh, & Budhwar, 2006). Social Identity Theory describes how individuals derive their identity from their group memberships, and accounts for the social psychological processes involved in intergroup behaviour, such as stereotype formation, favouritism, prejudice and discrimination (Brown, 1995; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Authors in the adjustment literature suggest that the extent to which expatriates are categorized as belonging to foreign groups may influence the amount of help they receive from locals, and consequently the extent of adjustment experienced (Toh & Denisi, 2007).

In what Turner (1991) terms as “metacontrast”, individuals tend to make group classifications based on the features that most obviously differentiate groups. Accordingly, the literature suggests that categorizations of individuals originating from foreign countries are usually based on nationality due to iconic differences associated with national membership, such as language, accents, physical appearance, interests, history, norms and values (Abrams & Hogg, 1987; Graham, 1983; Olsen & L, 2009; Toh & Denisi, 2007; van Oudenhoven, Selenko, & Otten, 2010). Turner, Oakes, Haslam and McGarty (1994) also proposed that group classifications are “inherently variable, fluid and context dependent” and “are always relative to a frame of reference” (p. 454). As a result, members of a group may be classified as in-group or out-group members depending on the social context and the availability of social comparison(s).

For example, Abrams and Hogg (1987) investigated the role of accents on in-group and out-group categorization of individuals and subsequent intergroup behaviour. The

authors asked 120 participants from Dundee, Scotland, to listen to audio tape recordings of voices representing accents from Glasgow (Scottish accent) or English Received Pronunciation (English RP; English accent). After listening to the recordings, students were asked to rate voices on a 5-point bipolar scale for status (education, intelligence, success, wealth) and solidarity (friendliness, kindness, trustworthiness and good/bad). Participants were then asked to listen to recordings of speakers from Dundee and answer questions that measured participants' identification with Dundee, Scotland, England and Britain, for example, feelings of pride, strong ties and belonging. The authors found that Glasgow accents were rated more negatively than Dundee accents, but more positively than British RP accents. Participants also exhibited greater identification with Scotland and increased in-group favouritism when international accents were compared (i.e., between Scottish and British RP accents) rather than regional accents (i.e., between Dundee and Glasgow accents). These findings suggest that individuals might classify similar others as belonging to an out-group in the *absence* of other more diverse comparisons (e.g., Glasgow or Dundee identities), yet may classify these same individuals as the in-group in the *presence* of more diverse groups (e.g., Britain) due to a shift in one's self-categorization to another level (e.g., from Dundee or Glasgow identities to a unitary Scottish identity). Similarly, the expatriate adjustment literature suggests that expatriates are more likely to be categorized as in-group rather than out-group members by locals if they originate from more similar nations and/or are in the presence of those from more different nations (Toh & Denisi, 2007).

The extent to which an expatriate is categorized as part of an out-group may influence the amount of favouritism, prejudice and discrimination shown towards them (Toh & Denisi, 2007). Social Identity Theory suggests that individuals are motivated to reach intergroup comparisons that are favourable to the in-group, which as a result enhances self-esteem (Brown, 1995; Zander, Stotland, & Wolfe, 1960). The requirement to reach favourable comparisons is often cited as the underlying mechanism for in-group favouritism and other intergroup behaviours, such as prejudice, discrimination and stereotype formation (Brown, 1995; Ellermers, Spears, & Doosje, 1999). Furthermore, pronounced out-group differences may pose a threat to social norms, otherwise conceptualized as the "social fabric of a host country" (Zárate, Garcia, Garza, & Hitlan,

2004, p. 104). As a result, local workers may be more willing to help expatriates whom they perceive as belonging to more similar national groups (Toh & Denisi, 2007).

A number of experiments investigating intergroup behaviours have measured willingness to exhibit helping behaviours as an indication of racial discrimination. For example, Bryan and Test (1967) investigated the impact of a collector's ethnicity on willingness of passer-bys to give a donation. The authors placed two Salvation Army collectors, one Caucasian and one African American, in a busy American mall. Donations, which were made largely by Caucasian shoppers, were significantly lower for the African American collector than the Caucasian collector.

In addition to discriminatory intergroup behaviour, New Zealand workers may also be more willing to help more similar expatriates who are classified as closer to the in-group because similarities may make it easier to do so. For example, Saucier, Miller and Douchet (2005) conducted a meta-analysis of forty-eight studies, and found that the amount of help given to ethnic out-groups versus in-groups is mostly a function of perceived ease of helping, such as risk, length, effort and difficulty, rather than underlying racial prejudices. As a result, not only is the act of helping more similar national groups a product of attempts to enhance self-esteem (Brown, 1995), but may also be a function of the perceived and real costs of helping very different expatriates, for example, overcoming language barriers (Javidan, Stahl, Brodbeck, & Wilderom, 2005).

In sum, Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory both predict that similar others are more likely to receive help (although they are differentiated by their accounts of *why* similar others are more likely to receive help, that is, via attraction versus intergroup behaviour, such as stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination). As a result, the second hypothesis draws on both Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory to suggest that New Zealand workers will be more willing to provide information and social support to expatriates who originate from similar, rather than different, cultures (H2).

Inverse Resonance

Although Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory predicts that groups will be more willing to help similar expatriates, expatriates that are perceived as *too* similar may pose a threat to group identity and instead produce discriminatory behaviour out of a need to remain different. In other words, negative attitudes towards very different out-groups may arise out of threats to the “social threads” of society (Zárate, et al., 2004, p. 104), but may also be exhibited towards very similar out-groups due to threats to group distinctiveness.

A study by van Oudenhoven, et al. (2010) illustrated that likeability of out-groups is limited by extreme similarities and perceived threats to identity. In accordance with Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory, the authors acknowledged that language similarity is an important factor in likeability of others, and that language is a salient indicator of national identity. However, the authors hypothesized that likeability differs according to perceived threat to identity, which they suggested was a product of comparisons with linguistically similar but more powerful neighboring countries (judged by relative size of countries). The authors asked 832 high school students from France, Germany, The Netherlands, Austria, Belgium and Switzerland to complete a questionnaire that measured likeability and perceived similarity, including language, of people from the above countries. The authors found that participants rated a linguistically similar neighboring country as more likeable if the participants originated from a smaller rather than larger country. For example, Austrian participants liked German participants (a linguistically similar but larger country) less than German participants liked Austrian participants (a linguistically similar but smaller country). In accordance with Blanz, et al. (1998), the authors interpret their findings as attempts at “social creative strategies”, where linguistically similar but weaker (smaller) countries rate more powerful (larger) counterparts as less likeable in order to maintain group distinctiveness and cope with threats to identity.

The tendency of groups to discriminate against similar out-groups in order to maintain social distinctiveness is known elsewhere in the literature as Inverse Resonance, which is an extension of Social Identity Theory (Carr, Ehiobuche, Rugimbana, & Munro, 1996; Carr, Rugimbana, Walkom, & Bolitho, 2001; Coates & Carr, 2003). Carr, et al. (2001) investigated selection biases in the primarily non-English speaking context of

Tanzania by asking 96 Bachelor of Commerce students studying at the University of Dar-Es-Salaam to rank order job candidates to reflect the typical preferences of local personnel managers. Candidates originated from Tanzania, East Africa (a similar neighbouring country), and Western countries (dissimilar countries) and were described as equal in all facets of the job criteria. The authors found that, in accordance with Inverse Resonance, participants suggested that local personnel managers would prefer, from most to least, Tanzanian, Western and then East African candidates.

The study by Carr, et al. (2001) was replicated in a primarily English-speaking context by Coates and Carr (2003). Coates and Carr (2003) surveyed 80 Subject Matter Experts (SME) who were in some way experienced in recruitment and selection of personnel in New Zealand. As stated by the authors, New Zealand is a very relevant context in which to investigate Inverse Resonance because New Zealanders are often associated with their similar and more powerful (socially dominant) neighbor, Australia. As with Carr, et al. (2001), participants were asked to suggest the preferences of New Zealand personnel managers towards equally-matched job candidates who originated from New Zealand, Australia, Britain, South Africa, India, China, Samoa and Fiji. Congruent with Inverse Resonance, the authors found that preferences for candidates increased with similarity and social dominance, with the *exception* of Australian candidates, who were rated as most similar but less likely to be preferred over British candidates.

Inverse Resonance would suggest, therefore, that locals are most likely to help expatriates who are moderately similar, rather than those who are very similar (Carr, et al., 1996), which challenges the common notion that expatriates are able to adjust easiest to cultures most similar to theirs (David, 1971; Graham, 1983; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Van Vianen, et al., 2004). Support for this proposition is found in an exploratory study conducted by Selmer and Shiu (1999), who conducted semi-structured interviews with expatriates from Hong Kong who were working in manufacturing, construction, service, trading and food and beverage industries in Beijing and Shanghai. The Hong Kong expatriates reported tensions between themselves and their subordinates due to historical threats and commonly held stereotypes. For example, the handover of Hong Kong from the United Kingdom to the Peoples Republic of China in 1997 was mentioned as a source of hostile subordinate feelings towards expatriates. Although not explicitly stated by the author, the

acquisition of an out-group into the subordinates' national group may be a considerable identity threat for locals. Hostility towards expatriates, therefore, may be in reaction to identity threat and attempts to maintain distinctiveness, which is in accordance with Inverse Resonance.

In sum, Inverse Resonance suggests that groups tend to discriminate against others that are too similar in order to maintain group distinctiveness. As a result, our third hypothesis predicts that New Zealand workers will be more willing to provide information and social support to expatriates from moderately similar countries, such as Britain, over those from relatively more similar countries, such as Australia (H3).

Social Dominance Theory

Social Dominance Theory refers to a human tendency to stratify groups according to social hierarchies and allocate rewards and discrimination on this basis (Sidanius, 1993). Stratification is often based on "nationality, race and class" (Lim & Ward, 2003, p. 250), with negative intergroup behaviour, such as prejudice and discrimination, often being directed towards subordinate groups (Sidanius, 1993). In the present context, the literature has generally assumed that the social status of an expatriate is derived from the socio-economic dominance of their country-of-origin (Carr, et al., 2001; Coates & Carr, 2005; Lim & Ward, 2003).

Various authors have shown Social Dominance Theory to be operating in candidate selection of expatriates in various countries and across various cultures, such as Africa, Asia and Australasia. For example, Carr et al. (2001) asked 96 Tanzanian students enrolled in a Bachelor of Commerce to rank-order Tanzanian, East African and Western candidates. The authors found that participants rated Tanzanian candidates as most preferred, followed by Western candidates and then East African candidates as least preferred. These findings were attributed to Inverse Resonance, where East African candidates may have been discriminated against due to threats to the group distinctiveness of Tanzanians. However, the authors also report that Western candidates were preferred because, according to participants, they had access to "technically superior facilities in the West" (p. 451). Comments such as these indicate that the socio-economic standards associated with candidates' countries-of-origin may be a consideration in the decision-making processes involved in candidate selection. As

Western candidates generally originate from more socially dominant countries than East African candidates (United Nations, 2003), favouritism of Western candidates over East African candidates may also be operating via mechanisms of Social Dominance Theory.

As mentioned previously, Coates and Carr (2005) replicated the above study in New Zealand. The authors surveyed 80 Human Resource Managers and Industrial/Organisational Psychologists in New Zealand, and found that selection biases existed towards candidates who originated from countries that were rated as more socially dominant, such as Britain and Australia. Similarly, in their study based in Singapore, Lim and Ward (2003) found that Singaporeans overwhelmingly preferred American employees over neighboring Chinese employees due to socio-economic standards of employees' countries-of-origin.

Social Dominance Theory has also been demonstrated in contexts outside of expatriate selection. In a study investigating motivating work factors for Nigerian employees, Eze (1985) asked 175 Nigerian supervisors and managers to respond to a questionnaire that measured lower-order and higher-order motivations, which included a measure of self-adequacy. The Nigerian participants scored very low on self-adequacy measures and the authors reported a greater preference for personnel and products that originated out of more socially dominant countries, such as Europe and America.

In a similar study, Marin and Salazar (1985) surveyed 1,184 college students from seven different nations in The Americas, and found that socially dominant countries were viewed more positively than respondents' own groups. The authors found that socio-economic characteristics of countries were important in shaping the stereotypes of citizens of that country. Specifically, groups that were associated with lower socio-economic statuses were generally assigned negative stereotypes (such as "stupid", p. 405) whereas those that were associated with higher socio-economic statuses were generally admired.

In sum, the above findings suggest that expatriates are more likely to receive preferential treatment if they originate from more socially dominant countries-of-origin. Therefore, in the context of the present study, our fourth hypothesis predicts that New Zealand workers will be more willing to provide information and social support to

expatriates who are perceived as originating from more socially dominant countries (H4).

Realistic Conflict Theory

Also revealed in the study by Selmer and Shiu (1999) is that negative attitudes arise out of threats to finite resources, for example, the expatriates mentioned that their occupation of local jobs resulted in “competitive feeling towards Hong Kong managers” (p. 455). According to Realistic Conflict Theory, hostility that arises between members of different groups due to competition for finite resources is labeled as Realistic Conflict (Brown, 1995). Subsequently, Realistic Conflict Theory provides a link back to Social Identity Theory whereby conflict between members of different groups leads to discriminatory intergroup behaviours, such as prejudice and withdrawals of helping behaviours (Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, & Sherif, 1961). The international literature suggests that prejudice against expatriates is often rooted in the perception that expatriates pose a threat to finite job-related resources in the host country (Zárate, et al., 2004).

One basic and limited form of finite job-related resources is pay. Toh and Denisi (2003) suggest that expatriates often get paid considerably more than their local counterparts. Pay inequities, as perceived by local workers, may result in withdrawal behaviours to compensate for this “relative deprivation” (p. 606). For example, Scholl, Cooper and McKenna (1987) surveyed 152 full-time employees occupying low to middle level managerial positions in an American financial institution. The authors found that employees’ willingness to engage in extra-role behaviours was clearly influenced by what other employees were getting paid, rather than the amount they were being paid. As a result, local workers may be less willing to provide extra-role helping behaviours, such as information and social support, for expatriates if they perceive pay inequities between themselves and the expatriate.

In addition to pay inequities, the advancement of local workers’ *careers* may be another source of competition for finite organisational resources (Lee & Westwood, 1996; Li & Kleiner, 2001). Li and Kleiner (2001) explain that expatriates often occupy higher-level managerial positions, which restrict any promotional opportunities for local workers. As a result of this threat, hostile expatriate-local relationships may evolve out of lowered

inputs from locals, such as the withholding of information and social support from expatriates.

Zárate, et al. (2004) suggest that, when in competition for finite job-related resources, such as pay and promotions, local workers may find expatriates who are similar along work-related traits as more threatening than other more different expatriates. In their experiment, the authors asked four groups of participants ($N = 105$) to highlight a) differences in interpersonal traits, b) similarities in interpersonal traits, c) differences in work-related traits, and d) similarities in work-related traits, between themselves and Mexican immigrants. Control participants were asked to make self-ratings along the above traits. Consistent with Social Identity Theory, and as mentioned previously, the group that highlighted interpersonal differences between themselves and Mexican immigrants exhibited greater prejudice than those who highlighted interpersonal similarities. However, the group that highlighted *work-related similarities* between themselves and Mexican immigrants exhibited *greater* prejudice than those who highlighted *work-related differences*. The authors suggest that participants felt threatened by immigrants who were similar in work-related traits due to a match in competitiveness.

In sum, expatriates who are perceived as being an equal or greater match in competition for finite job-related resources, such as pay and promotions, may appear more threatening to New Zealand workers. As a result, the fifth hypothesis predicts that New Zealand workers will be less willing to provide information and social support to those expatriates who are perceived as being a greater threat to finite job-related resources (H5).

CHAPTER 2

Method

Participants

Human Resource Managers and Industrial/Organisational Psychologists specialize in the management of employees and are often in the position to observe relationships between employees at work. Human Resource Managers and Industrial/Organisational Psychologists were sought as participants via Human Resource Institute of New Zealand (HRINZ) and a virtual network of Industrial/Organisational Psychologists (IONet). The Human Resource Institute of New Zealand is an organisation for professionals involved with Human Resource Management in New Zealand workplaces, and “IONet” is an online community of Industrial/Organisational Psychologists in New Zealand. Responses were received from 99 of these Subject Matter Experts, with 56 responses being eligible for use in the final data analysis. The 56 participants who were included in the data analysis had an average age of 49.49 years and consisted of 14 males and 41 females (one participant did not specify their gender).

Participants had an average of 13.06 years experience in their respective fields, with an average of 9.54 years dealing with expatriates and 11.78 years observing the relationship between expatriates and local workers in New Zealand workplaces. Sixteen participants had experienced working as an expatriate themselves. Of these 16 participants, three participants were currently expatriates working in New Zealand with an average stay of 4.3 years to-date and the remaining 13 participants had worked in various international locations for an average of 2.7 years. Thirty-five participants had experienced working alongside expatriates as co-workers. Hence, this was an experienced sample with respect to international assignments and work roles.

Thirty-four participants were directly involved with Human Resource functions, which included job titles of Human Resource Manager, Coordinator, Advisor, Officer, Administrator and Consultant. Four participants reported being registered and/or consultant Psychologists. Other job titles included Organisational Development Manager ($N = 2$), Consultant ($N = 2$), Training Coordinator ($N = 1$), University lecturer ($N = 2$), Principal ($N = 1$), Practice Manager ($N = 1$), Horticultural Manager ($N = 1$),

Manager/General Manager ($N = 2$), Information Specialist ($N = 1$) and Director ($N = 1$). Four participants did not state their precise job title.

Materials

The present study used an adaptation of a questionnaire developed in Coates and Carr (2005), who observed immigrant selection practices using estimations of Subject Matter Experts in New Zealand. An online version of the questionnaire was used in the present study for outreach purposes and convenience (see Appendix I for a full copy of the questionnaire).

The questionnaire presented seven fictitious expatriates from seven countries-of-origin. Expatriate countries-of-origin were chosen based on the top six nationalities of people granted work permits to temporarily work in New Zealand (New Zealand Immigration Service, 2001). These nationalities were: Britain (26%), Japan (16%), USA (7%), South Africa (4%), India (4%), and Canada (4%). We also included Australia as a country-of-origin, because Australians do not require a work visa to work in New Zealand, are geographically close and hold trade agreements with New Zealand (Closer Economic Relations, CER, 1983). As a result, Australians are relatively frequently likely to receive temporary work assignments in New Zealand.

The questionnaire informed participants that all expatriates began work in New Zealand at the same time and would work alongside New Zealand workers for the next year. Participants were also told that all expatriates were fluent in English, and had equal job performance, qualifications, background work experience and experience in New Zealand so far.

Preferences for Helping Measure. The first section of the questionnaire asked participants to estimate, generally, the preferences of local New Zealand workers with regards to providing information (part a) and social support (part b) to the seven expatriates. Participants were asked to select the expatriate that New Zealand workers would be *most* willing to provide information and social support to, and then the second most preferred, and so on, until the least preferred expatriate had been selected for the last position. Coates and Carr (2005) drew on previous research to suggest that the types

of indirect and scenario-based questioning used in this questionnaire serves to alleviate social desirability effects.

Similarity Measure. The similarity measure asked Subject Matter Experts to rank the seven expatriates' countries-of-origin according to their similarity to New Zealand, as perceived by New Zealand workers. As presented in Appendix I, part 2, similarity was measured by asking participants to "indicate how New Zealand workers might generally view each of the following countries, according to the degree of similarity between their ways of living/systems of belief, and those in New Zealand". Question one asked participants to select the country-of-origin that was *most* similar to New Zealand. Questions two to seven required participants to select the expatriate country-of-origin that was *next* most similar, and so on, until the least similar country-of-origin had been selected for in the seventh question. At the end of the section, participants were asked to ensure that each country was selected only once, which generated a list of countries from most to least similar.

Social Dominance Measure. In consultation with authors of the theory itself, Coates and Carr (2005) suggested that social dominance could be measured by asking participants to rank countries-of-origins across a variety of characteristics that people value, such as "living standards, education, health and levels of wealth." As a result, and as presented in Appendix I part 3, social dominance was measured by asking participants to "indicate how New Zealand workers might generally view each of the following countries according to which country has the best, the next best, and so on... living standards, education, health and levels of wealth." The first question asked which country had the *best* living standards, education, health and levels of wealth. Subsequently, questions two to seven asked which country had the *next* best living standards, education, health and levels of wealth, and so on, until the country-of-origin with the lowest socio-economic standards had been selected for the seventh question. Participants were asked to ensure they selected each country only once, which generated a list of countries from highest to lowest social dominance.

Threat. In response to limitations suggested by Coates and Carr (2005), the current study includes a measure of "realistic conflict" (rational threat) to finite job-related resources, as perceived by local New Zealand workers. Specifically, threats to the

advancement of local workers in their jobs, that is, promotions, are often cited as considerable sources of realistic conflict between expatriates and local workers (Lee & Westwood, 1996; Li & Kleiner, 2001). As presented in Appendix I part 4, participants were asked, “Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriate from the following locations would New Zealand workers see as the *most* threatening in competition for a promotion”. Subsequently, questions two to seven asked which expatriates were perceived as *next* most threatening, and so on, until the least threatening expatriate was selected for the seventh question. Participants were told that all expatriates were fluent in English and have equal job performance, qualifications, background work experience and new experience in New Zealand so far. Participants were asked to ensure they selected each expatriate only once, which generated a list of expatriates from most to least threatening.

Qualitative Questions. After parts one to four of the questionnaire, participants were asked, “why do you think New Zealanders, generally, would have the kinds of preferences you’ve indicated above?” These questions allowed participants to qualify their responses and provided researchers with a rationale for the types of preferences typically exhibited by local workers towards expatriates.

Experiences and Reflections on the Questionnaire. Referring to the ‘Experiences and Reflections on the Questionnaire’ section in Appendix I, question one asked participants, “did you base your judgments in this questionnaire largely on actual observations,” which required a simple yes/no response. If participants selected “no” they were able to qualify their response in a space below. The second question asked participants whether they were comfortable filling out the questionnaire, which again required a yes/no response and a space below to qualify any “no” responses.

Demographic Questions and Previous Experience. The final section asked participants to report demographic variables, such as gender, age, education and current job title. Furthermore, participants were asked to report the number of years experience spent working in Human Resources or Industrial/Organisational Psychology and the sector(s) in which they have spent this time working. Specifically, experience with expatriates was investigated by asking participants to indicate the number of years spent dealing with expatriates as part of work, the number of years spent observing relationships

between local workers and expatriates in the workplace and previous experience working alongside expatriate colleagues and/or as an expatriate themselves. For the latter, participants were asked to specify the duration and origin where they worked alongside expatriate colleagues and/or as an expatriate themselves.

Procedure

The study consisted of a pilot and main study. Approval from Massey University Human Ethics Committee was gained prior to the pilot and main study (Application number: 10/033).

The pilot study consisted of eight participants who each had over two years experience as practitioners or postgraduate students in the field of Psychology. The researcher felt that participants' feedback regarding the questionnaire's wording and layout would be accurately informed by their research and practical experience in Psychology. Participants were contacted via e-mail, which contained a link to the online questionnaire. Upon completion of the questionnaire, participants were requested to return their feedback via e-mail. After receiving feedback from the participants, the questionnaire was modified to remedy any points of confusion. For example, following Coates and Carr (2005), qualitative questions were initially worded as "why do you think New Zealanders, generally, would have the kinds of preferences you've indicated in part X" and were initially placed in the section regarding experiences and reflections on the questionnaire. Two participants commented that it was difficult to remember what part pertained to which questions and it was inconvenient to scroll back as a reminder. Therefore, the question was placed directly after each part of the questionnaire and the wording was changed to "why do you think New Zealanders, generally, would have the kinds of preferences you've indicated above?"

Human Resource and Industrial/Organisational Psychology professionals were recruited as participants via the Human Resource Institute of New Zealand and IONet. Consent to circulate the study's information sheet via IONet was not required as the network did not have an official 'owner'. However, permission to circulate the information sheet via Human Resource Institute of New Zealand was required.

Once permission was obtained from Human Resource Institute of New Zealand, the study's information sheet was circulated to members of Human Resource Institute of New Zealand and IONet. The study's information sheet contained details about the study and included a link to the online questionnaire. Professionals who were interested in participating in the study were able to follow the link to access the survey and submitted their completed responses to the researcher via a 'done' button on the last page of the questionnaire. Anonymous responses from the questionnaire were automatically stored in the researcher's profile at SurveyMonkey, which was guarded by a private username and password known only to the researcher.

CHAPTER 3

Results

Inclusion Criteria

Ninety-nine participants responded to the online questionnaire. Following Coates and Carr (2005), the responses were screened to ensure that they were suitable for analysis based on the following criteria:

a) Participants were asked if their responses were based on actual observations. Participants who submitted “yes” responses to this question were included in the data set. Participants who answered “no” were excluded from the data set unless the researcher felt that their qualifying comment provided evidence for their inclusion in the data set (see Appendix II for the qualifying comments that justified inclusion in the data set). As a precautionary measure, participants were also excluded if they did not specify whether or not their judgments were made on actual observations. Out of the total responses received ($N = 99$), $n = 14$ participants were excluded because they did not base their judgments on actual observations and a further $n = 27$ participants were excluded because they did not disclose whether their judgments were made on actual observations or not. As a result of the above inclusion criteria, a total of $n = 41$ participants were excluded, which left $n = 58$ participants in the data set.

b) For each participant response set, fully completed sections (i.e., all seven countries-of-origin were assigned a rank) were included in the data analysis and any incomplete sections were excluded from the data analysis. Of the $n = 58$ participants who remained after inclusion criteria (a), $n = 2$ of these participants were removed from the data set as they did not fully complete *any* sections in the questionnaire. Therefore, the total number of participants dropped to $n = 56$ after this inclusion criteria was imposed.

c) Participants were asked to ensure that each country-of-origin was only ranked once. For each participant, responses to a section were excluded from the data if one or more country-of-origin was assigned more than one rank; however, participants were not completely lost from the data set if they provided completed and useable data for other remaining sections (Coates & Carr, 2005). As a result of the above inclusion criteria,

$n = 5$ participants were excluded from all analyses involving part 1 (New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information and social support to expatriates), $n = 4$ participants were excluded from any analyses involving part 2 (similarity of expatriates to New Zealand), $n = 2$ participants were excluded from part 3 (social dominance of expatriates' countries-of-origin), and $n = 5$ participants were excluded from part 4 (threat posed by expatriates to finite work-related resources) of the questionnaire. All of the above participants provided completed and useable data for other sections and, as a result, they were not lost from the overall data set (i.e., the total N remained at 56).

The questionnaire also asked if participants felt reasonably comfortable with answering the questionnaire. Participants who felt uncomfortable with answering the questionnaire were still included in the data set, as the researcher felt that this would not impact on their ability to make accurate judgments of New Zealand workers' preferences. Out of the $n = 56$ participants included in the final data analysis, $n = 21$ (37.5%) did not feel comfortable filling out the questionnaire. This figure was consistent with Coates and Carr (2005) who received a similar proportion of subjects that felt uncomfortable with answering the questionnaire (35%). One participant (1.8%) chose not to indicate their feelings of comfort whilst answering the questionnaire.

Participants were asked to explain why the questionnaire made them feel uncomfortable (see Appendix II). Of the $n = 21$ participants who felt uncomfortable answering the questionnaire, $n = 10$ participants (17.9% of all valid participants) expressed feelings of unease due to making judgments on constructs, such as "New Zealand workers" and "expatriates" that were very generalized. For example, respondents' comments included the following: "I find it hard judging someone on their nationality as it is a lot of generalizations;" "It makes me seem very judgmental by country of origin when I judge people by who they are normally;" and, "due to greater differences within cultures than between, i.e., individual differences". Although participants were asked to make judgments about the treatment of expatriates by local workers, as they had observed it, four participants (7.1%) felt that they were making discriminatory judgments against expatriates in the workplace, for example, "in my job I strive to regard all employees as equal members of staff and therefore it felt wrong to distinguish between them" and "I personally felt biased or racist."

Of the $n = 21$ participants who felt uncomfortable answering the questionnaire, two participants (3.6%) were cautious about their ability to make accurate judgments of local New Zealand workers' preferences. For example, statements included, "I probably don't have concrete evidence so I am concerned that my responses may not be accurate and objective", and "I had to use my own experiences and judgments, however, I tried to be as objective as possible." As the above two participants have an average of 15 years working as Human Resource Managers, the researcher felt that, despite their reservations, these participants were capable of making accurate judgments. Finally, of the $n = 21$ participants who felt uncomfortable, five participants (8.9%) felt uncomfortable due to the questionnaire layout and wording, for example, comments included "difficult to remember what you had put before. Might be easier to rank them on one page (question);" and, "the questions were written in a confusing way." Nevertheless, as no participant said that this reduced the accuracy of their responses, I am confident that these participants' responses are still valid. One participant (1.8%) chose not to explain why they felt uncomfortable answering the questionnaire.

The Relationship Between Information and Social Support (H1)

Table 1 below displays the mean ranking of New Zealand workers' preferences for giving information and social support to expatriates from different countries-of-origin ($N = 51$). Lower values generally indicate stronger predicted preferences by Subject Matter Experts for local New Zealand workers' willingness to provide help to expatriates from different countries-of-origin.

With reference to Table 1, Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance (W) was used to ascertain the degree of agreement between independent raters who were ranking the same stimuli. W is suitable in the context of this study as it is a non-parametric statistic that is best suited to small sample sizes with less than 100 judges (we can assume normality if $N > 100$), but greater than three judges (Howell, 1992; the current study has 51 raters). The statistic can range from 0 to 1, with higher coefficients indicating a greater degree of inter-rater agreement. W can then be converted to a Chi-squared statistic (χ^2) to test the null hypothesis of no concordance between raters (Howell, 1992). Following Coates and Carr (2005), W was calculated to measure inter-rater agreement, and to that extent, bias from randomly distributed preferences among New Zealand workers vis-à-vis expatriates from different countries-of-origin.

Table 1. Mean Ranks of New Zealand Workers' Preferences for Providing Information and Social Support to Expatriates ($N = 51$)

	Britain	Australia	Canada	South Africa	USA	Japan	India	χ^2	W	$p(W)$
Information	1.79	2.12	3.48	4.13	4.33	5.94	6.21	195.0	.625	.000**
Social Support	2.08	2.14	3.55	4.18	4.61	5.67	5.78	150.0	.490	.000**
τ	.212	.406	.272	.317	.309	.132	.054			
$p(\tau)$.087 ^{ns}	.001**	.017*	.005**	.009**	.281 ^{ns}	.661 ^{ns}			
Overall Mean Rank	1.94	2.12	3.51	4.18	4.46	5.79	6.00	338.5	.553	.000**

** Coefficient is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

* Coefficient is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

^{ns} = Non-significant

In the present study, probabilities for W that are lower than an alpha of .05 were taken to indicate that there was significant inter-rater agreement in this sample of Subject Matter Experts regarding the preferences of New Zealand workers. Authors such as Carr et al., (2001) and Coates and Carr (2005) found comparable significance levels for W , which were interpreted as good inter-rater agreement. Any significant departure from randomly distributed ranks signals bias. As presented in Table 1, there is significant inter-rater agreement between participants with regards to New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information ($W = .625, p < .01$) and social support ($W = .490, p < .01$) to expatriates.

As shown in Table 1, the mean ranks for information-giving (lower values indicate greater preference) show that New Zealand workers reportedly tend to be most willing to provide information to British expatriates ($\bar{x} = 1.79$). Following Britain, the present sample of Subject Matter Experts report that New Zealand workers are *next* most willing to provide information to expatriates from Australia ($\bar{x} = 2.12$), which is followed by Canadian ($\bar{x} = 3.48$) and then South African ($\bar{x} = 4.13$) expatriates. After South African expatriates, mean rankings suggest that New Zealand workers are *next* most willing to provide expatriates from USA ($\bar{x} = 4.33$) with information, followed by those from Japan ($\bar{x} = 5.94$). New Zealand workers are judged by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts as *least* willing to provide Indian expatriates with information ($\bar{x} = 6.21$) relative to the aforementioned expatriates. Mean ranks for social support, as shown by Table 1, follow the same trend; New Zealand workers are perceived as most

willing to provide British expatriates with social support ($\bar{x} = 2.08$), followed by Australian ($\bar{x} = 2.14$), then Canadian ($\bar{x} = 3.55$), South African ($\bar{x} = 4.18$), American ($\bar{x} = 4.61$), Japanese ($\bar{x} = 5.67$) and, lastly, Indian ($\bar{x} = 5.78$) expatriates.

What is the relationship between New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information and their willingness to provide social support? Table 1 presents Kendall's Tau Rank Correlation Coefficients (τ), which, in the present study, is a measure of the correlation between ranks for willingness to provide information and (separately) willingness to provide social support, for each expatriate's country-of-origin (repeated measure). These rank correlation coefficients enable us to test the first hypothesis, which posited that New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information would increase as their willingness to provide social support to expatriates increased, and *visa-versa*, *regardless* of expatriate country-of-origin (H1). Kendall's tau (τ) is a non-parametric test that is a measure of rank association between two ordinal variables according to the number of concordant and discordant pairs. Authors have suggested that Kendall's tau (τ) is often more preferred over the alternative Spearman's r due to similar levels of power but greater control over type 1 errors and easier interpretation (Arndt, Turvey, & Andreasen, 1999; Schaeffer & Levitt, 1956). Kendall's tau (τ) is suitable for the present analysis, as the sample size is small ($N < 100$) and the variables of information and social support are ordinal and related (both variables are ranked by the same participant).

From Table 1, reported provision of information and social support are at-best moderately related (.406) for information/social support rendered to expatriates from Australia ($\tau = .406, p < .01$), followed by South Africa ($\tau = .317, p < .01$) and USA ($\tau = .309, p < .01$). Although significant, the relationship between reported provision of information and social support for Canada appears relatively weak ($\tau = .272, p < .05$), especially in comparison with Britain ($\tau = .212, p > .05$) whose relationship between information and social support is similar yet non-significant. Finally, the relationship between reported provision of information and social support is extremely weak and non-significant for Japan ($\tau = .132, p > .05$), and even more so for India ($\tau = .054, p > .05$).

In sum, for the present sample of Subject Matter Experts, there is a consistency in responding across the two measures of information and social support (systematic bias) for Australia, Canada, South Africa and USA; but not for Britain, Japan and India. Hence these findings partially support the first hypothesis because they indicate that, as reported by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts, willingness to provide information increases with willingness to provide social support, and visa-versa, for Australia, Canada, South Africa and USA; but not for Britain, Japan and India. In other words, willingness to provide information increases with willingness to provide social support, and visa-versa, *depending on*, rather than *regardless of*, expatriate country-of-origin.

In the present study, the variables of information and social support were combined to obtain a general index of willingness to help. This index enabled a more general and direct comparison of preference biases between countries-of-origin. Although tentative because of moderate to weak relationships between information and social support, the general willingness to help index was calculated by taking the average of information and social support ranks for each country-of-origin (i.e., the overall mean preference rank was calculated). The overall mean preference ranks (presented in Table 1) indicate that, as ranked by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts, New Zealand workers are generally perceived as most willing to help British expatriates ($\bar{x} = 1.94$) over those from Australia ($\bar{x} = 2.12$), followed by Canadian ($\bar{x} = 3.51$), South African ($\bar{x} = 4.18$), American ($\bar{x} = 4.46$) and then Japanese ($\bar{x} = 5.79$) expatriates. Finally, Indian ($\bar{x} = 6.00$) expatriates are ranked as least preferred overall. Table 1 also shows that there is sufficient interrater agreement with respect to overall mean ranks ($W = .553, p < .01$).

Figure 1 below shows plots of mean ranks of New Zealand workers' preferences for providing information and, separately, mean ranks of their preferences for providing social support to expatriates according to country-of-origin. Separate plots of information and social support in Figure 1 enable a detailed illustration of the variation between information and social support for *each* country-of-origin, and also, how they collectively vary *across* countries-of-origin. Figure 1 illustrates that average ranks for information and social support are similar for any given country-of-origin (with perhaps the exception of Britain and India) and that they collectively vary across countries-of-origin in a general downward trend that noticeably descends in steps.

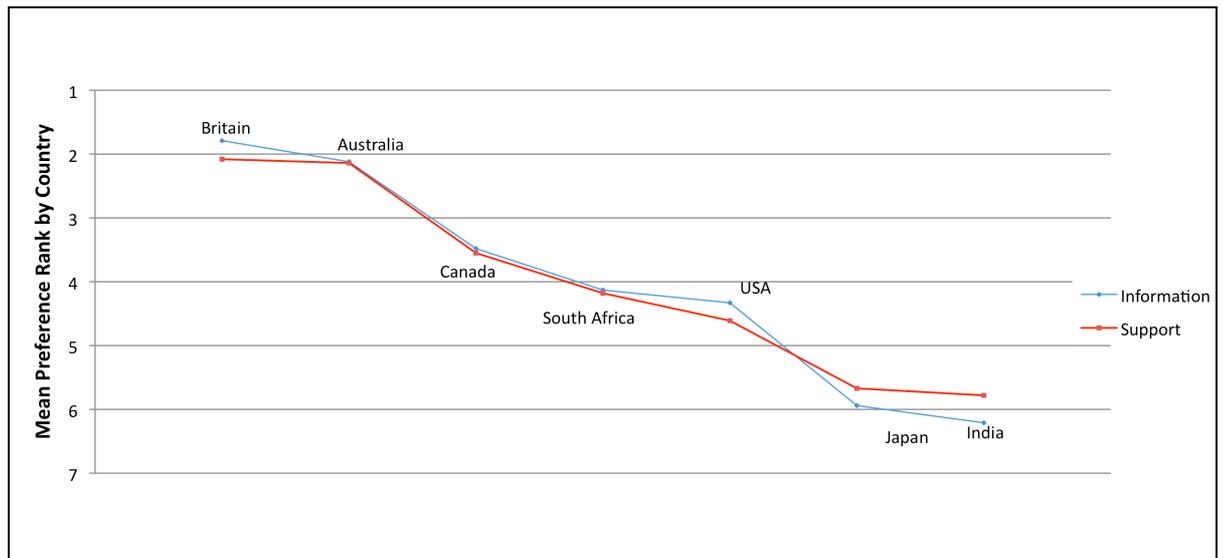


Figure 1. Plot of Mean Ranks of Preferences for Providing Information and Mean Ranks of Preferences for Providing Social Support by Expatriate Country-Of-Origin

Are the steps between the countries-of-origin in Figure 1 statistically significant? In order to test the significance of the gradient variations between adjacent pairs of countries-of-origin in Figure 1, Sign Tests were used (after Carr et al., 2001 and Coates & Carr, 2005). Sign tests are a non-parametric statistic that is appropriate for ordinal data, as it makes few assumptions about the nature of the distributions being tested (Grimm, 1993). Sign tests are used to test the significance of differences between pairs of related mean ranks, according to the number of positive, negative and tied differences between their rankings. Although Sign tests may lack statistical power, the present sample size is sufficiently large to detect substantive rather than trivial differences (Grimm, 1993). Overall mean preference ranks in Table 1 were used as data for the Sign test. For instance, and as presented in Table 2 below, there were $N = 51$ participants who provided useable data for part 1 of the questionnaire. As a result, there were 51 overall preference rank comparisons, and consequently, a total of 51 higher, lower or tied overall ranks between pairs of countries-of-origin.

Table 2 contains data from Sign tests that compared overall mean preference ranks between pairs of countries-of-origin that were ranked directly higher and lower in preference ($N = 51$). From Table 2, the current sample of Subject Matter Experts estimated the following predicted preferences for provision of help in general (i.e., the

composite variable of information and social support) among New Zealand workers vis-à-vis expatriates from: Australia (preferred) over Canada, and USA (preferred) over Japan. The remaining comparisons of Britain/Australia, Canada/South Africa, South Africa/USA and Japan/India are not statistically significant; that is, New Zealand workers are not perceived by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts as significantly differentiating between these pairs of countries-of-origin with regards to their preferences for providing help in general.

Table 2. *Sign Tests Comparing Overall Mean Preference Ranks Between Pairs of Countries-of-origin that were Ranked Directly Lower and Higher in Preference (N = 51)*

Countries-of-origin	Negative differences (lower preference)	Positive differences (higher preference)	Ties	Total number of comparisons (N)	p
Britain/Australia	20	20	11	51	1.0 ^{ns}
Australia/Canada	9	39	3	51	.000**
Canada/South Africa	16	28	7	51	.097 ^{ns}
South Africa/USA	17	30	4	51	.08 ^{ns}
USA/Japan	9	42	0	51	.000**
Japan/India	10	22	19	51	.052 ^{ns}

** Significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

^{ns} = Non-significant

Overall from Table 2, the data indicated that, according to our Subject Matter Experts, New Zealand workers do not differentiate in terms of their preferences for providing information and social support for a) British versus Australian expatriates, b) Canadian versus South African expatriates, c) South African versus American expatriates, and d) Japanese versus Indian expatriates (although the test statistic is borderline at 0.05).

A next step is to ascertain the motivation behind, that is, reasons for, the above reported pattern of preferences when New Zealand workers provide or withhold information and social support to expatriate workers in their own workplaces. In other words, which theories are supported by patterns in the data?

Preference and Similarity (H2)

Part 2 of the questionnaire asked participants to indicate which countries-of-origin New Zealand workers were likely to think of as most similar, next most similar, and so on (see Appendix I). Incorporating this similarity variable into the analyses, our second hypothesis predicted that New Zealand workers would be more willing to provide expatriates with information and social support if they originate from similar, rather than different, countries (H2). A co-variation between perceived similarity and preference for providing information and social support will suggest a functional linkage in the minds of New Zealand workers, and as a result, will lend support for the second hypothesis.

Figure 2 shows a plot of New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information and social support to expatriates as a function of the mean ranks of similarity. The mean similarity ranks are plotted along the x-axis, and are as follows: Australia = 1.3, Britain = 2.15, Canada = 3.13, USA = 4.34, South Africa = 4.43, Japan = 6.30, and India = 6.34.

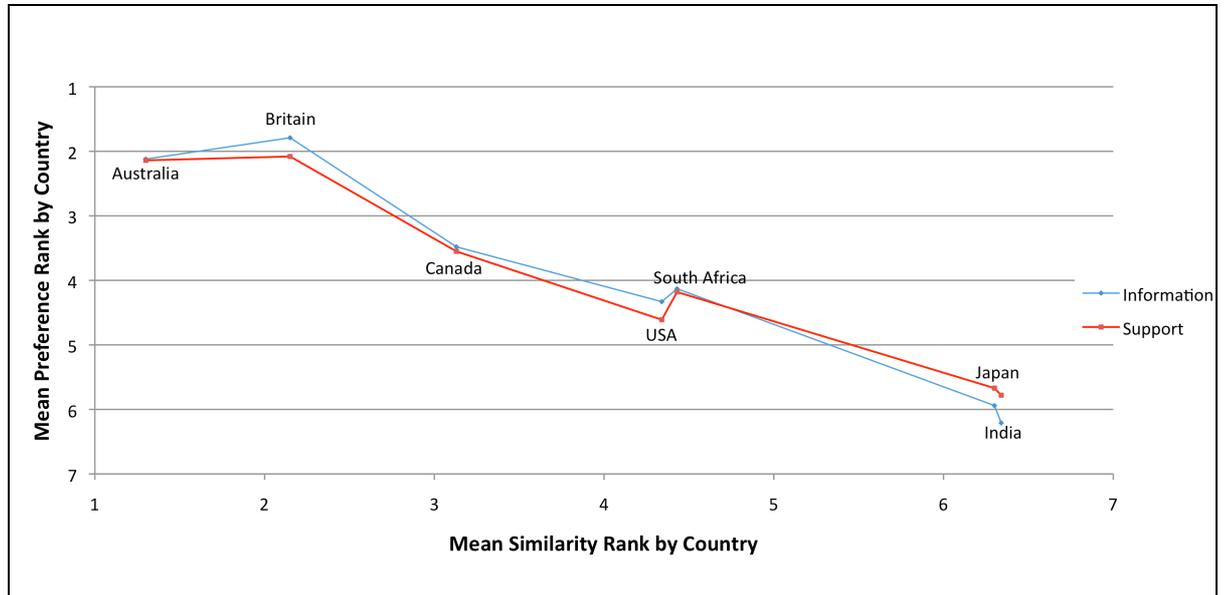


Figure 2. *Reported Preferences for Providing Information and Social Support According to Expatriate's Country-Of-Origin Similarity to New Zealand*

From figure 2, as mean similarity ranks decrease, so too does the mean preference ranks for information and social support. This downward trend is consistent with Similarity

Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory, which demonstrates that New Zealand workers generally prefer to provide information and social support to expatriates who originate from similar, rather than dissimilar, countries-of-origin. As a result, our second hypothesis (H2) is supported in the present study. However, as shown by the Sign tests presented in Table 2, the downward steps in Figure 2 are not always statistically significant between countries-of-origin, which perhaps implies the presence of variables other than similarity.

Inverse Resonance (H3)

With reference to Figure 2, although Australia is ranked as more similar to New Zealand, it appears that New Zealand workers are perceived as more willing to provide information and social support to expatriates from Britain over those from Australia. Visually, the above inconsistency lends support for the third hypothesis, Inverse Resonance: New Zealand workers might be perceived as more willing to provide information and social support to expatriates from moderately similar countries, such as Britain, over those from highly similar countries, such as Australia (H3). However, as mentioned previously, and as shown in Table 2, the mean preference ranks for British and Australian expatriates are *not significantly* separated. This finding indicates that, according to the present sample of Subject Matter Experts, New Zealand workers do not significantly favour British expatriates over Australian expatriates with respect to their preferences for providing information and social support. As a result, our third hypothesis (H3) is not statistically supported in the present study.

Preference and Social Dominance (H4)

In order to measure social dominance of expatriates' countries-of-origin, part 3 of the questionnaire (see Appendix I) asked participants to indicate which countries-of-origin New Zealand workers perceive as having the best "living standards, health, education and wealth", next best, and so on. Figure 3 illustrates the mean preference rank for providing information and social support as a function of mean social dominance ranks. Mean social dominance ranks are presented along the x-axis of Figure 3, and are as follows: Australia = 2.21, Canada = 2.70, USA = 3.30, Britain = 3.49, Japan = 3.75, South Africa = 5.85, India = 6.70.

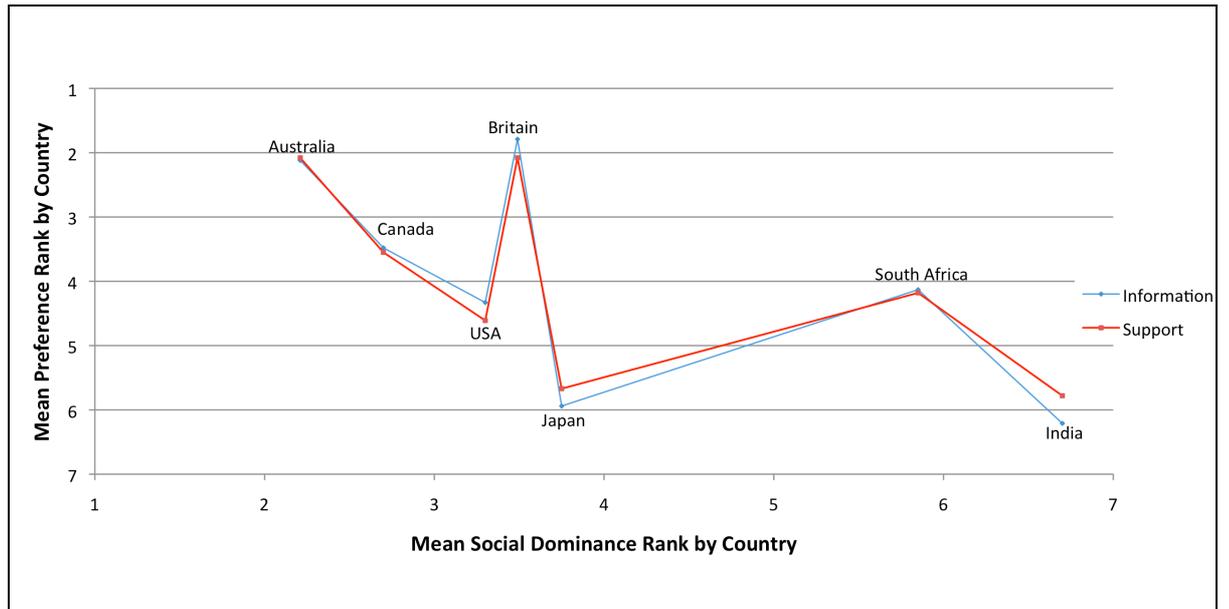


Figure 3. *Reported Preferences for Providing Information and Social Support According to Social Dominance of Expatriate's Country-Of-Origin*

The fourth hypothesis (H4) suggests that, in accordance with Social Dominance Theory, New Zealand workers are perceived as more willing to provide information and social support to expatriates who originate from more socially dominant countries. Relative to the similarity-preference trend shown in Figure 2 (H2), the above trend does not show clear co-variation between mean social dominance ranks and mean preference ranks, especially for Britain. For example, with reference to the Sign tests in Table 2, British expatriates are reported to be significantly preferred over Canadian expatriates, yet Figure 3 shows that Britain is rated as less socially dominant than Canada. Therefore, Social Dominance Theory (H4) is not well supported in the present study.

Preference and Perceived Expatriate Threat (H5)

In order to measure realistic threat, part 4 of the questionnaire (see Appendix I) asked participants to rank expatriates in the order of their threat to New Zealand workers when in competition for a promotion, as perceived by New Zealand workers. Figure 4 illustrates the mean preference ranks for providing information and social support to expatriates as a function of expatriates' mean threat ranks. Mean threat ranks are plotted along the x-axis of figure 4, and are as follows: Britain = 2.40, Australia = 2.96, USA = 3.46, South Africa = 3.62, Canada = 4.38, Japan = 5.36, and India = 5.82.

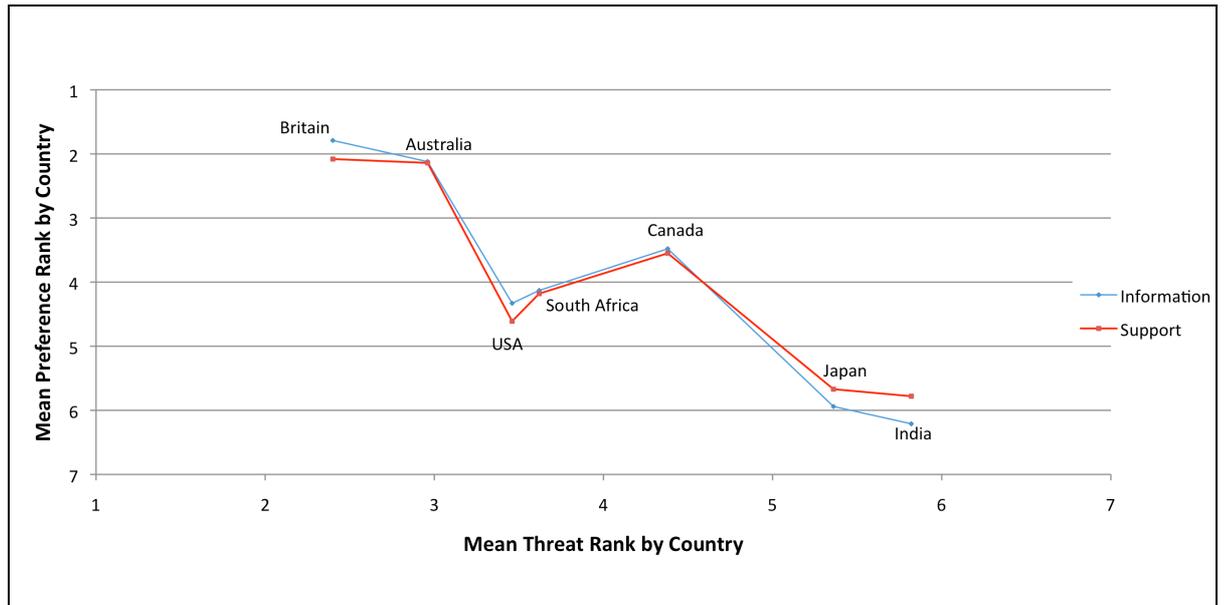


Figure 4. *Reported Preferences for Providing Information and Social Support According to Expatriate's Threat to Finite Work-Related Resources*

The fifth hypothesis (H5) suggested that New Zealand workers would be perceived as less willing to provide information and social support to expatriates whom they perceive as more threatening. According to this hypothesis we would expect to see a positive upward trend (i.e., as threat rank declines, New Zealand workers will be more helpful in general); however, Figure 4 illustrates that USA and/or Canada are outliers in an otherwise downward trend (in which reduced threat is associated with less help). This downwards rather than upwards trend suggests that the Realistic Conflict Theory (H5) is not a salient predictor of bias in the present sample.

Which of the variables above (similarity, social dominance or threat) is most closely associated with being likely to receive support and information? Using mean ranks as data, and as presented in Table 3 below, Kendall's Tau Rank Correlation Coefficients (τ) were calculated to quantify the associations between a) countries-of-origins' mean preference ranks and mean *similarity* ranks, b) countries-of-origins' mean preference ranks and mean *social dominance* ranks, and c) countries-of-origins' mean preference ranks and mean *threat* ranks.

Table 3. *Correlations between Overall Mean Preference Ranks for providing help in general and Mean Ranks for Similarity, Social Dominance and Threat Across Expatriate Countries-of-Origin (N = 7)*

	τ	$p(\tau)$	N
Similarity	.810	.011*	7
Social Dominance	.524	.099 ^{ns}	7
Threat	.714	.024*	7

* Coefficient is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

^{ns} = Non-significant

Table 3 shows that mean preference ranks are highly and significantly correlated with mean similarity ranks ($\tau = .810$, $p < .05$), which suggests that Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory (H2) is, as suggested previously (see Figure 2), the best predictor of ranks of New Zealand workers' preferences for providing information and social support to expatriates. Mean threat ranks are also significantly correlated with mean preference ranks ($\tau = .714$, $p < .05$), albeit to a lesser extent than mean similarity ranks. However, as mentioned previously, we expected that New Zealand workers' preference would decrease as expatriate threat increases (H5); that is, we expected a negative correlation between mean preference ranks and mean threat ranks. As mean preference ranks and mean threat ranks are positively correlated, threat may be a predictor of New Zealand workers' preferences in the present context; albeit not as predicted by our model. Finally, mean preference ranks appears to be weakly and non-significantly related to mean social dominance ranks ($\tau = .524$, $p > .05$), which confirms that social dominance of expatriates' countries-of-origin is not a strong predictor of New Zealand workers' preferences for providing information and social support (H4). Overall, the above Kendall's Tau Rank Correlation Coefficients (τ) that are presented in Table 3 statistically confirm that the second hypothesis (Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory) is supported whereas the fourth (Social Dominance Theory) and fifth (Realistic Conflict Threat) hypotheses are not supported in the present study.

Qualitative Responses to the Questionnaire

Participants were given the opportunity to qualify why they thought New Zealand workers generally have the preferences that were indicated in parts one to four of the questionnaire. Responses were analyzed according to the thematic analysis methods set

out by Braun and Clarke (2006), that is, using codes from the data to pick out themes. In some cases, single statements were split up into their components because they related to multiple themes. In order to test the interrater reliability of the thematic coding in the present analysis, two postgraduate Psychology students were asked to match statements up with their corresponding themes. Interrater reliability was measured by the extent to which the reviewers correctly coded statements into their themes, and was calculated using Cohen's Kappa (K) (Landis & Koch, 1977).

Reasons for Ranks of New Zealand Workers' Willingness to Provide Expatriates with Information and Social Support (Part 1)

Participants were asked to qualify their ratings of expatriates according to the willingness of New Zealand workers to provide expatriates with information and social support. Of the 103 responses that met inclusion criteria for both part 1a (willingness to provide information) and 1b (willingness to provide social support) combined, 95 participants (92.2%) took the opportunity to qualify their ratings. The themes and frequency of qualitative responses to part 1 are presented in Table 4. The interrater reliability for part 1 was calculated to be Kappa = .74 ($p < .000$), which indicates "substantial" agreement (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 165). See Appendix III, part 1, for the full transcript.

From Table 4 below, the majority of participants (37.1%) suggested that similarity to New Zealand was a major contributing factor towards willingness to provide information and social support. This finding converges with the correlation analyses above, which confirms that similarity of expatriates' countries-of-origin to New Zealand is the greatest influence on New Zealand workers' willingness to help expatriates. Some specific points of similarity include language similarity (and consequently, ease of communication; 20.5%), shared ancestry and history (3.8%), geographical proximity to New Zealand (3.0%) and migration flows (3.0%). As a result of similarities, some participants suggested that a sense of belonging and community (10.6%), cultural understanding (6.1%), and stereotyping, discrimination and prejudice (6.8%) influenced New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information and social support. As a result, the above themes support Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory, and consequently, lend support to our second hypothesis (H2).

Table 4. *The Principle Reasons for Ranking Expatriates According to New Zealand Workers' Preferences for Providing Information and Social Support, as Estimated by Subject Matter Experts (N = 95)*

Theme	Representative Statement	Theory
Similarity (37.1%)	"Cultural similarities and thus preference"	Similarity Attraction Theory Social Identity Theory
Ease of Communication (20.5%)	"It is easier to communicate and understand each other when you come from English speaking countries with similar cultures"	
Sense of belonging and community (10.6%)	"People like people like themselves, so they will relate more closely to people with similar cultural reference points, e.g., Britain, Australia"	
Cultural Understanding (6.1%)	"Better understanding of one another's culture"	
Shared Ancestry and History (3.8%)	"Common heritage helps provide basis to form relationships"	
Geographical proximity to New Zealand (3.0%)	"Southern hemisphere location"	
Migration flows (3.0%)	"Greater numbers coming from those countries"	
Stereotypes, discrimination and prejudice (6.8%)	"Stereotypes about ethnic groups/foreigners – prejudice"	Similarity Attraction Theory Social Identity Theory Social Dominance Theory
Perceived need (3.8%)	"Who would need the most assistance/integration"	Realistic Conflict Theory
Personal gain (2.3%)	"If New Zealanders are the ones giving support and assistance it puts them in an expert or power role so that they are less likely to feel threatened by the expatriate but rather mentor them"	
Altruism (1.5%)	"It appeals to their sense of being able to do greater good and make a difference"	
Expatriate's attitude (1.5%)	"Arrogance of others would play a part"	

Although not supported by the quantitative data, the theme of stereotypes, discrimination and prejudice (6.8%) may also support Social Dominance Theory (H4). Discriminatory intergroup behaviour, such as stereotypes, discrimination and prejudice, may result from selectively defining and helping expatriates according to the socio-economic standing of their countries-of-origin.

Perceived need (3.8%), personal gain (2.3%), altruism (1.5%) and expatriates' attitude (1.5%) appear to relate to Inverse Resonance (H3) and/or Realistic Conflict Theory (H5); the provision of help to expatriates may elevate New Zealand workers' self-esteem and/or disempower the expatriate (whether actual or perceived). Whilst not empirically supported, the above evidence lends support to Inverse Resonance (H3) and Realistic Conflict Theory (H5).

Reasons for the Rank Order of Countries-of-Origin by Similarity (Part 2)

Participants were asked to qualify their rank orders of countries-of-origin according to similarity to New Zealand, as perceived by New Zealand workers. Of the 53 responses that met inclusion criteria for part 2 of the questionnaire, 36 participants (67.9%) qualified their rankings of countries-of-origins according to similarity. The themes and frequency of qualitative responses to part 2 are presented in Table 5. The Kappa (K) was calculated to be .929 ($p < .000$), which indicates "almost perfect" interrater agreement (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 165). See Appendix III, part 2, for the full transcript.

From Table 5 below, statements regarding reasons for similarity ranks largely support Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory (H2). For example, the majority of Subject Matter Experts suggested that features of expatriates' personal and national identities, such as language (15.8%) values, beliefs and religion (14.0%), shared ancestry and history (12.3%), culture (8.8%), lifestyles (8.8%) and social and organisational structures (3.5%), may influence New Zealand workers' judgments of similarity. Other participants suggested that, as a result of similarities between identities, outcomes such as familiarity and relatedness (10.5%), cultural knowledge and understanding (7.0%), ease of integration (5.3%) and migration flows (3.5%) influenced New Zealand workers' judgments of similarity.

Table 5. *The Principle Reasons for Perceived Similarity Rankings of Expatriates' Countries-Of-Origin as Estimated by Subject Matter Experts, that is, the Psychological Elements of Similarity (N = 36)*

Theme	Representative Statement	Theory
Language (15.8%)	“Common language”	Similarity Attraction Theory Social Identity Theory
Values, beliefs and religion (14.0%)	“Systems of belief are the same”	
Shared ancestry and history (12.3%)	“Many historical factors – ancestry”	
Familiarity and relatedness (10.5%)	“These are the countries New Zealanders are most familiar with, and have similar cultural reference points to”	
Culture (8.8%)	“Background and culture”	
Cultural knowledge and understanding (7.0%)	“Existing knowledge/perception of that country”	
Ease of integration (5.3%)	“I have based these answers on my observations of the ease with which expatriates from the various countries listed have integrated with New Zealanders”	
Migration flows (3.5%)	“Many have holidayed and worked in Britain and Australia”	
Social and organisational structures (3.5%)	“Organisational structures, dynamics”	
Lifestyles (8.8%)	“As Japan, South Africa and India have very different lifestyles”	Similarity Attraction Theory Social Identity Theory Social Dominance Theory
Political systems (5.3%)	“May view countries with a similar legal and political situation to New Zealand’s as most similar”	Social Dominance Theory
Health and education standards (3.5%)	“Comparable health, schooling and possibly social systems”	

Themes associated with factors of social dominance, such as political systems (5.3%), lifestyles (8.8%) and health and education standards (3.5%) support Social Dominance Theory (H4). By associating New Zealanders' values with those belonging to more socially dominant countries, New Zealand workers (as suggested by the current sample of Subject Matter Experts) may appraise 'socially dominant' expatriates as more similar in order to associate themselves with a powerful position in the world. As a result, Social Dominance Theory (H4) may play a role in New Zealand workers' judgments of expatriates' similarity to New Zealand.

Reasons for the Rank Order of Countries-of-Origin by Social Dominance (Part 3)

In part 3, participants were asked to qualify their ranking of expatriates' countries-of-origin according to social dominance, as perceived by New Zealand workers. Of the 53 participants who met inclusion criteria for part 3, 44 participants (83%) took the opportunity to qualify their ratings of expatriate countries-of-origin according to social dominance. The themes and frequency of qualitative responses to part 3 are presented in Table 6. The Kappa for part 3 was calculated to be .898 ($p < .000$), which indicates "almost perfect" interrater agreement (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 165). See Appendix III, part 3, for the full transcript.

The majority of themes presented in Table 6 relate to the way that countries are commonly viewed and organized in New Zealand workers' minds. For example, media (38.6%) and knowledge through travel and others' experiences (18.2%), appear to play a role in the formation of stereotypes (11.4%). As a result, both Social Identity Theory (H2) and Social Dominance Theory (H4) may contribute towards New Zealand workers' judgments of socio-economic standings of expatriates' countries-of-origin.

As expected, the remaining themes largely support Social Dominance Theory (H4). For example, facets of living that humans typically value: Health and education standards (6.8%), safety and crime rate (4.5%) and climate and space (2.3%). In addition, the theme of power and wealth of countries (9.1%) is a direct measure of social dominance. Social Dominance Theory (H4) also predicts that New Zealand workers would be more inclined to admire individuals who originate from more socially dominant countries. This prediction is supported by the theme of 'socially dominant' expatriates as beneficial to the organisation (2.3%).

Table 6. *The Principle Reasons for Perceived Social Dominance Rankings of Expatriates' Countries-Of-Origin as Estimated by Subject Matter Experts, that is, the Psychological Elements of Social Dominance (N = 44)*

Theme	Representative Statement	Theory
Media (38.6%)	“A lot of these perceptions come from the media and commonly held stereotypes”	Social Dominance Theory Social Identity Theory
Knowledge through travel and others' experiences (18.2%)	“Previously held knowledge of those places through immigrants and their own travels”	
Stereotypes (11.4%)	“From commonly held perceptions”	
Power and wealth of countries (9.1%)	“Based on the success of these countries globally”	Social Dominance Theory
Health and education standards (6.8%)	“Due to standards of qualifications recognized worldwide”	
Safety and crime rate (4.5%)	“Levels of danger”	
Climate and space (2.3%)	“Australia is next best as standards of living would be better than somewhere like Britain due to its climate and space”	
Beneficial to the organisation (2.3%)	“Preference could be given according to the best standard of living as it could help to lift company values and expectations especially if that person was being employed in higher levels of management where they have an influence on the company's values and culture”	
Similarities (6.8%)	“Ability to see the similarities”	Similarity Attraction Theory Social Identity Theory

The theme relating to similarities (6.8%) suggests that Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory may play a role in judgments of social dominance. Making judgments of social dominance according to similarities suggests that New Zealand workers tend to appraise similar others (who might be more liked and/or considered part of the in-group) as originating from more socially dominant countries in order to view New Zealand as more socially dominant, and therefore, increase self-esteem.

Reasons for the Rank Order of Expatriates According to Perceived Threat (Part 4)

Part 4 of the questionnaire asked participants to rank expatriates according to realistic threat to finite job-related resources, as perceived by New Zealand workers, and qualify their ratings. Of the 50 participants who met inclusion criteria for part 4, 37 participants (76%) took the opportunity to qualify their responses. The themes and frequency of qualitative responses to part 4 are presented in Table 7. The Kappa for part 4 was calculated to be .818 ($p > .000$), which indicates “substantial” interrater agreement (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 165). See Appendix III, part 4, for the full transcript.

The themes presented in Table 7 largely support Social Identity Theory (H2), for example, using stereotypes of cultural traits, values, and abilities (46.0%) to make judgments of threat suggests that New Zealand workers use group stereotypes as an indication of expatriates’ personal characteristics. Furthermore, media (2.7%) is thought to influence these stereotypes. The present sample of Subject Matter Experts also suggest that very different expatriates (i.e., those expatriates who are classified as out-group members) may be threatening (2.7%), which is in accordance with Social Identity Theory (H2).

Conversely, the present sample of Subject Matter Experts also suggested that New Zealand workers may find similar (18.9%) expatriates as threatening, which is consistent with Inverse Resonance (H3). Similar expatriates who are considered part of the in-group may form easier relationships with New Zealand decision makers (5.4%) and may have a better understanding of New Zealand practices (2.7%). As a result, New Zealand decision-makers are likely to exhibit selection biases towards similar expatriates, such as favouritism, which renders similar expatriates as more threatening.

Table 7. *The Principle Reasons for Perceived Threat Rankings of Expatriates as Estimated by Subject Matter Experts, that is, the Psychological Elements of Realistic Conflict (N = 37)*

Theme	Representative Statement	Theory
Stereotypes of cultural traits, values and abilities (46.0%)	“Stereotypes about hard working cultures, i.e., Japan and India”	Social Identity Theory
Differences (2.7%)	“It is always those you relate least to that you perceive as the greatest threat”	
Media (2.7%)	“Perceptions gained from the media”	
Similarity (18.9%)	“Speaking with a Kiwi accent has a very strong advantage over people from overseas”	Inverse Resonance
Ease of formation of relationships with New Zealand decision-makers (5.4%)	“Even though everyone is equal and can all speak English, your manager also may form a bond with the person they are going to give a promotion to and it would seem easier to form a bond with a like-minded person (similar background, culture etc.)	
Understanding of New Zealand practices (2.7%)	“Having an understanding of NZ farming practice”	
Education standards (10.8%)	“Because of the perception of their education system”	Social Dominance Theory
Business success and size (10.8%)	“Knowledge is power and being a small country, New Zealanders who have worked largely in Kiwi companies may have not been exposed to as many situations as the likes of USA expatriates”	

Alternatively, themes also provide evidence for Social Dominance Theory (H4), whereby participants suggest that New Zealand workers may feel threatened by expatriates who originate from more socially dominant countries. This is indicated by themes such as education standards (10.8%) and business success and size (10.8%).

CHAPTER 4

Discussion

Summary of Main Findings

The objective of the present research project was to explore New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information and social support to expatriates, and subsequently understand New Zealand workers' psychological motivations for providing help to expatriates in New Zealand workplaces. Specifically, Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory (H2), Inverse Resonance (H3) Social Dominance (H4) and Realistic Conflict Theory (H5) were tested as possible accounts for "treatment biases" exhibited towards expatriates by New Zealand workers, such as those associated with providing information and social support.

The inter-rater reliability for the present study was found to be significant, that is, the present sample of Subject Matter Experts were substantially in agreement with each other. Reported rankings of New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information increased with rankings of New Zealand workers' willingness to provide social support, and visa-versa, for expatriates from Australia, Canada, South Africa and USA; but not for those from Britain, Japan and India. As explained in further detail below, this finding suggests that the problem- versus emotion-focused distinction may be extended to helping behaviours.

Overall, the data suggests that New Zealand workers, as rated by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts, were most willing to help expatriates from Britain, followed by Australian, Canadian, South African, American, Japanese and, finally, Indian expatriates (see Figure 1). Between these countries, however, New Zealand workers reportedly differentiate between Australian (preferred) and Canadian expatriates, and American (preferred) and Japanese expatriates in their preferences for helping expatriates. These non-significant 'fault lines' (see Table 2) indicate that Subject Matter Experts may predict New Zealand workers' preference biases according to a) primarily English-speaking countries that have historical and migratory links to New Zealand (Britain and Australia), b) primarily English-speaking with little historical and

migratory links to New Zealand (Canada, South Africa and USA), and c) non-English speaking Asian countries (Japan and India).

What are the psychological motivations behind the above pattern of preferences? As rated by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts, the data obtained in the present study largely suggests that New Zealand workers' willingness help to expatriates increased as *similarity* of expatriates' countries-of-origin to New Zealand increased. This finding is largely consistent with the second hypothesis, which, in accordance with Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory, predicted that New Zealand workers would be more willing to help expatriates who originate from similar, rather than different, countries-of-origin (see Figure 2). Although a weaker predictor than similarity, ranks of willingness to help expatriates also increased as perceived *threats to finite work-related resources* increased (see Figure 4). However, as Realistic Conflict Theory (H5) predicted that New Zealand workers would be *more* willing to help *less* threatening expatriates, this theory is not supported by the present study. Furthermore, although some support was received from the qualitative data, Inverse Resonance (H3; see Figure 2) and Social Dominance (H4; see Figure 3) did not receive statistical support in the present study.

Overall, the data suggests that British and Australian expatriates are most likely to receive help from New Zealand co-workers, and subsequently, remain in their New Zealand jobs for as long as possible. The data also suggests that it may be most difficult for New Zealand organisations to retain Japanese and Indian expatriates due to a lack of help from their co-workers; as a result, additional attention should be devoted to facilitating the adjustment processes of these expatriates.

Links to Theory

Problem-Focused versus Emotion-Focused coping: According to the coping literature, the extent of controllability of a stressful situation may influence the types of coping strategies that are employed by an individual (Coyne & Smith, 1991; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). For instance, individuals may be more likely to employ problem-focused coping in stressful yet controllable situations, whereas they are more likely to employ emotion-focused coping in uncontrollable situations; that is, these forms of

coping strategies may be easily differentiated in stressful situations at the extremes of controllability (i.e., predominantly controllable or uncontrollable).

In the same manner, the present research posits that controllability of a situation may also influence the type of *help* that is provided. For example, the present data suggests that New Zealand workers, as ranked by Subject Matter Experts, differentiate between problem-focused (information) versus emotion-focused (social support) help for expatriates originating from Britain, Japan and India. In accordance with the coping literature, expatriates from Britain, Japan and India may, therefore, be perceived by New Zealand workers as being in stressful situations that are at the extremes of controllability (i.e., either predominantly controllable or uncontrollable). This proposition is feasible, as the present data suggests that similar expatriates (i.e., British expatriates) are likely to receive help from New Zealand co-workers, and therefore, able to *largely control* the stress associated with adjustment to a new country via effective information-gathering processes (Louis, 1980). Conversely, different expatriates (i.e., Japanese and Indian expatriates) possess obvious cultural and linguistic differences that provide barriers to becoming recipients of favourable ‘in-group’ treatment bias, such as help. This bias may maintain cultural differences, and consequently, may elicit a self-perpetuating cycle of treatment bias. As a result, the information gathering processes of Japanese and Indian expatriates may be ineffective, which may render the stress associated with the adjustment process as *predominantly uncontrollable*.

As is also suggested by the coping literature, the use of problem- and emotion-focused coping strategies *in conjunction* is not uncommon when situations are *moderately controllable*; that is, coping strategies may not be easily differentiated when the stressful situation contains a mix of controllable and uncontrollable elements (Coyne & Smith, 1991; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). The present data suggests that moderately similar expatriates (i.e., Canadian, South African and American expatriates) may receive *some* information and social support from New Zealand workers, which may render their adjustment process as only *moderately controllable*. Accordingly, Subject Matter Experts reported that New Zealand workers *do not* differentiate between the provision of problem-focused (information) and emotion-focused (social support) help for expatriates from Australia (anomaly; see “Inverse Resonance” below) Canada, South Africa and USA.

In sum, drawing from the coping literature, New Zealand workers' perceived controllability of the stressful situation may provide an account for why New Zealand workers may differentiate between provision of information and social support for expatriates from Britain, Japan and India; but not for expatriates from Australia (anomaly; see "Inverse Resonance" below), Canada, South Africa and USA. As a result, the problem- versus emotion-focused distinction found in coping theories may be extended to helping behaviours.

Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory. Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory posits that similar others will receive positive treatment bias, such as a greater amount of help, via mechanisms of attraction (Daniels & Berkowitz, 1963; Emswiller, et al., 1971; Karylowski, 1976) and other intergroup processes, such as favouritism (Bryan & Test, 1967; Saucier, et al., 2005; Toh & Denisi, 2007). Overall, our data is consistent with the predictions of Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory, where New Zealand workers were reported as being more willing to help similar, rather than different, expatriates. For example, as rated by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts, British and Australian expatriates were ranked as most similar to New Zealand and as most preferred by New Zealand workers. Conversely, Japan and India were ranked by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts as least similar to New Zealand and as least preferred by New Zealand workers. Canadian, South African and American expatriates lay in the middle where they were ranked as moderately similar, and thus, moderately preferred relative to the above expatriate countries-of-origin (see Figure 2). The qualitative statements collected in the present study also largely support Similarity Attraction Theory and Social Identity Theory as predictors of New Zealand workers' preferences for helping. For example, "cultural similarities and thus preference" indicates that preferences may be largely due to similarities (Similarity Attraction Theory) and "similarities to own social groups" suggests an awareness of group memberships as playing a role in New Zealand workers' preferences (Social Identity Theory).

The above findings are consistent with Coates and Carr (2005), who found that similarity of candidates (who were immigrants) to New Zealanders had an influence on the selection biases of Human Resource Managers and Line Managers in New Zealand organisations. The present study demonstrates that Human Resource Managers and Line

Managers may be justified in preferring more similar candidates over less similar candidates as, according to the present sample of Subject Matter Experts, similar candidates will have greater access to information and social support from their colleagues, and thus, are likely to perform better at work.

As mentioned previously, the adjustment literature states that expatriates may experience more difficult adjustment processes in novel cultures due to intercultural differences (see Introduction; Black, et al., 1991; Church, 1982; David, 1971; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Van Vianen, et al., 2004). The present study offers a unique interpretation of these findings, where expatriates from novel cultures (i.e., Japanese and Indian expatriates) may experience more difficult adjustment processes because locals may be less willing to help these expatriates. Conversely, those from similar countries-of-origin (i.e., Britain and Australian expatriates) may experience easier adjustment processes due to greater access to information and social support from local co-workers.

Inverse Resonance. While the trend showing Inverse Resonance (see Figure 2) was not statistically supported, inverse resonance is nevertheless still worthy of further investigation due to quantitative and qualitative indicators in the present study that are in line with previous studies. For example, visually (see Figure 2), the data suggests that Inverse Resonance may be operating between Australia and Britain; that is, Australian expatriates may be perceived by New Zealand workers as extremely similar and, out of a need to maintain group distinctiveness, they are less preferred than British expatriates. Furthermore, qualitative statements, such as “the main competition is from English as a first language countries, and very few from Japan” support the notion that Inverse Resonance is present in New Zealand workers’ minds. This statement is consistent with Coates and Carr (2005) and Carr et al., (1996) who found Inverse Resonance operating in the selection of international candidates, and Selmer and Shiu (1999) who found that extremely similar expatriate managers had difficulty gaining acceptance from their subordinates.

An anomaly exists around the relatedness of information and social support for Australia, which also points towards the presence of Inverse Resonance. In this anomaly, New Zealand workers *do not* differentiate between information and social

support as helping behaviours for Australians expatriates, which suggests that New Zealand workers perceive Australian expatriates as being in a stressful situation that is moderately controllable. However, we would expect Australians to be perceived as being in a predominantly controllable situation because they primarily speak English and are rated by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts as most culturally similar to New Zealand. This anomaly may indicate the presence of Inverse Resonance whereby New Zealand workers may protect the distinctiveness of their identity as different from Australia (a more powerful, yet similar neighbouring country; Coates and Carr, 2005) by assuming that Australian expatriates may not integrate into the ‘in-group’ as easily as other similar expatriates, such as those from Britain.

Social Dominance Theory. Overall, the data suggests that Social Dominance Theory is not a salient predictor of New Zealand workers’ willingness to help expatriates (see Figure 3). This finding is inconsistent with authors such as Coates and Carr (2005), who found that Social Dominance Theory predicted systematic bias in selection decisions of immigrant candidates. However, according to the qualitative statements received by participants in the present study, social dominance appears to play a role in similarity judgments (“comparable health, schooling and possibly social systems”) and threat judgments (“knowledge is power and being a small country, New Zealanders who have worked largely in Kiwi companies may not have been exposed to as many situations as the likes of American expatriates”). These statements indicate that Social Dominance may be an indirect, rather than direct (as found by Coates & Carr, 2005), contributor towards New Zealand workers’ willingness to help expatriates.

Realistic Conflict Theory. New Zealand workers preferences were significantly related to perceived threat to finite work-related resources, but in the opposite direction than expected (see Figure 4). Data revealed that, surprisingly, New Zealand workers were ranked as most willing to provide information and social support to expatriates whom they perceived as most threatening. A possible explanation is that New Zealand workers may be more willing, rather than less willing, to provide most threatening expatriates with information and social support in order to put themselves in a position of power and/or create opportunities to influence their most threatening competitors. This proposition is supported by the qualitative data whereby one participant commented, “If New Zealanders are the ones giving support and assistance it puts them in an expert or

power role so that they are less likely to feel threatened by the expatriate but rather mentor them.” As a result, *threat to finite work-related resources* scores may be a significant predictor for New Zealand workers’ preferences for providing information and social support, albeit in a different direction than predicted by the Realistic Conflict Threat model.

An alternative explanation might be that New Zealand workers find similarity of expatriates as the most psychologically and politically salient variable for making preference judgments in the present context; however, similar expatriates were also ranked as more threatening (see Figures 2 and 4; in accordance with Inverse Resonance). For example, one participant commented, “the more similar [expatriates] are to [New Zealand workers], the more likely [the expatriate will be perceived as threatening].” As a result of the positive relationship between similarity and threat, the data may appear to suggest that more threatening expatriates were given higher preference rankings over less threatening expatriates.

Organisational Socialization Theory. Organisational Socialization Theory, developed by Saks and Ashforth (1997), pertains to the process by which a new employee adapts to a new work environment. The expatriate adjustment literature has consistently drawn on organisational socialization theory to inform existing models of expatriate adjustment due to the similarities between the two processes (Black, et al., 1991; Toh & Denisi, 2007). As mentioned previously, the organisational socialization literature has consistently suggested that organisational insiders are able to facilitate newcomer adjustment to the organisation via the provision of information and social support (see Introduction; Black, 1988; Black, et al., 1991; Kraimer, et al., 2001; Toh, 2004; Toh & Denisi, 2007). As a result of receiving information and social support, newcomers have less intention of leaving, become higher performers, and are more satisfied with their job (Nelson & Quick, 1991). The present findings, therefore, may have implications for the organisational socialization literature; that is, greater newcomer similarity and threat may increase the willingness of co-workers to provide newcomers with information and social support.

Limitations of the Study

The present study found that, in addition to threat, New Zealand workers were ranked as more willing to provide information and social support to similar, rather than different, expatriates. However, non-significant graduations between some countries-of-origin (see Table 2) indicates that there may be uncontrolled extraneous variables that are associated with similarity and that also have a causal influence on preference; hence, future studies are required to investigate the role of other extraneous variables in this relationship. For example, language differences (and therefore, ease of providing help) may prevent New Zealand workers from providing information and social support to expatriates regardless of New Zealand workers' willingness to help. As a result, the extent of language differences, rather than New Zealand workers' willingness, may determine the amount of information and social support that expatriates receive.

In addition to language differences, perceived familiarity may be another variable that influences attraction, and therefore, willingness of New Zealand workers to provide help (otherwise known as 'mere exposure effect'; Zajonc, 1968). Moreland and Zajonc (1982) suggest that, due to the 'mere exposure effect', people regard others who are familiar (via repeated exposures) as both more similar and likeable; conversely, those who are perceived as similar also appear to be more familiar. In the present context, similar expatriates may be perceived as familiar, and visa versa, which may influence helping preferences of New Zealand workers. Indeed, some evidence of the 'mere exposure effect' is found in the qualitative data of the present study, whereby participants commented, "more open to familiar nations than unfamiliar cultures", and "countries where you have lived in, visited and understand (i.e., have been exposed to) makes it easier". As a result, familiarity should be controlled in future studies in order to further clarify the association between expatriates' similarity to New Zealand and New Zealand workers' helping preferences towards expatriates.

As mentioned previously, Inverse Resonance appeared to be visually (see Figure 2) but not statistically (see Table 2) supported in the present study. A possible explanation is that limitations, such as small sample size ($N = 56$), may have prevented statistical detection of Inverse Resonance. Alternatively, Turner et al., (1994) and Abrams and Hogg (1987) suggest that classifications of in-group and out-group members are dependent on the social context and the availability of social comparison(s). In the

present study, the social comparison(s) (i.e., the expatriate countries-of-origin) may have prevented the detection of Inverse Resonance, for instance, Australian expatriates may have been classified as part of the in-group due to the availability of more diverse comparisons (e.g., Japan and India). That is, New Zealand workers may prefer to provide information and social support to extremely similar, rather than different, expatriates; thus, dampening the effects of Inverse Resonance. A suggestion for future studies would be to include more moderately similar countries and less different countries as social comparisons in order to highlight Australia as extremely similar, and therefore, increase the prominence of Inverse Resonance in participants' minds.

As mentioned above, the present sample was relatively small ($N = 56$). A small amount of respondents ($N = 99$) and, of these respondents, a low percentage of useable data (56.6% of responses were useable) may be characteristic of web-based surveys. A survey that is sent and returned electronically, rather than in-person, may enable participants to easily ignore or fail to complete the survey. However, according to Evans and Mathur (2005), the advantages of electronic surveys, such as no geographical restrictions, easy forwarding options, speed and convenience, outweigh the disadvantages of impersonality and low response rate.

A further weakness lay in the use of Subject Matter Experts to indicate typical judgments of New Zealand workers instead of directly asking New Zealand workers about their helping preferences. For example, some participants expressed doubt regarding their ability to accurately respond to the questionnaire, even though these participants had an average of 15 years working experience. For instance, participants commented, “[I] probably don’t have concrete evidence so I am concerned that my responses may not be accurate and objective”, and “I had to use my own experiences and judgments, however, I tried to be as objective as possible.” However, directly asking New Zealand workers about their preferences for helping expatriates may elicit a high degree of socially desirable responding. Furthermore, creating awareness of biases that may exist towards expatriate co-workers may be unethical.

The questionnaire also forced participants to make generalizations of a “typical New Zealand worker” and stereotype expatriates according to their country-of-origin. Some participants expressed discomfort with making judgments on such generalized

constructs; for example, participants commented, “what is a New Zealand worker “generally”?” and “I find it hard judging someone on their nationality as it is a lot of generalizations”. However, the present study still detected systematic biases in responding despite these generalizations, which indicates a general underlying presence of biases in New Zealand workers’ preferences for helping expatriates from different countries-of-origin.

Future Directions

Findings of the present study suggest that New Zealand workers’ helping behaviours towards expatriates may be distinguished between problem-focused (information) versus emotion-focused (social support) help for countries that were most similar (Britain) and most dissimilar (Japan and India) to New Zealand; but not for those that were moderately similar (Canada, South Africa and USA; with Australia as an anomaly). However, future research needs to confirm the role of similarity in the above finding. The problem- versus emotion-focused distinction between helping behaviours also needs to be explored in additional contexts to establish the generalisability of these constructs.

The present study proposed that, according to Similarity Attraction Theory *and* Social Identity Theory, New Zealand workers would be more willing to provide similar expatriates, rather than different expatriates, with help. Indeed, expatriates’ similarity to New Zealand was found to be the strongest predictor of New Zealand workers’ willingness to provide expatriates with help, as rated by the present sample of Subject Matter Experts. However, future research needs to clarify which theory best predicts the similarity-willingness relationship; that is, does the similarity-willingness relationship occur via mechanisms of attraction (Similarity Attraction Theory) or intergroup behaviour, such as stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination (Social Identity Theory)?

The unexpected positive relationship between New Zealand workers’ willingness to help and threat to finite work-related resources suggests that more investigation is needed to determine the mechanics by which threat influences willingness to help. For instance, is New Zealand workers’ provision of help to expatriates a strategy for decreasing threat posed by expatriates (whether perceived or real), or is similarity acting as a mediator between helping preferences and threat? Furthermore, as mentioned

above, the potential influence of social dominance on similarity and threat judgments (as indicated by qualitative statements) may indirectly impact New Zealand workers' willingness to help expatriates. As a result, further investigations into the relationships between similarity, social dominance and threat will provide a more thorough understanding of how these variables individually and collectively impact New Zealand workers' willingness to help expatriates.

The present study investigated the helping behaviours of New Zealand workers towards expatriates who are employed. However, the expatriate literature states that a major contributor towards expatriate failure and early-return is the inability of a spouse to adjust to the new country (Black, et al., 1991). Therefore, future research should also investigate whether greater similarity and threat increases New Zealanders' willingness to help expatriates' spouses in non-work contexts, in order to gain an overall perspective of how locals' helping behaviours influence the success of an expatriate transfer.

From findings of the present study, it is apparent that Human Resource Managers and Industrial/Organisational Psychologists need to be mindful that dissimilar expatriates in the New Zealand workplace may not have equal access to information and social support as other more similar expatriates. Orientation of noticeably different expatriates to New Zealand organisations and awareness training for New Zealand workers regarding their influence on the adjustment experiences of expatriates should be purposefully provided. Furthermore, helping behaviours need to be included in New Zealand workers' job descriptions and explicitly rewarded. Implementation of the above suggestions may increase the retention of expatriates in the New Zealand work force and, consequently, decrease skills shortages found in the labour market due to 'brain drain'.

Conclusions

The present study set out to explore New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information and social support to expatriates, and subsequently understand New Zealand workers' psychological motivations for providing help to expatriates in New Zealand workplaces. The present findings suggest that New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information is related to their willingness to provide social

support *depending* on the expatriate's country-of-origin. This finding suggests that the problem- versus emotion-focused distinction can be extended to helping behaviours, which is a unique finding in the literature. The data also shows that New Zealand workers are more willing to help expatriates who are perceived as more similar and more threatening to finite work-related resources. These findings have relevance to migrant support services, New Zealand organisations, Industrial/Organisational Psychologists, Human Resource Managers, New Zealand workers and expatriates coming to, or working, in New Zealand.

However, the study contains limitations such as a relatively small sample size, generalizations of "New Zealand workers" and "expatriates", and use of Subject Matter Experts rather than directly surveying New Zealand workers. Furthermore, language differences (and therefore, ease of providing help) and familiarity may have influenced associations found in the present data and should be incorporated or controlled in future studies. As New Zealand organisations continue their attempts to retain expatriates in New Zealand jobs for as long as possible, future research needs to further investigate the distinction between problem- versus emotion-focused help; and the relationship between expatriate similarity, social dominance and threat, and subsequently, their collective impact on New Zealand workers' willingness to provide information and social support to expatriates.

APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire

Part 1

An expatriate is an employee who is sent by their employers to work temporarily in a country other than that of their legal residence. We would like you to imagine that the following list of expatriates has been selected to temporarily work in the New Zealand branch of a multinational company. The expatriates originate from different locations, namely Britain, Japan, Australia, USA, South Africa, India and Canada. These expatriates started work in New Zealand at the same time and will work alongside New Zealand workers for the next year. All expatriates are fluent in English and have equal job performance, qualifications, background work experience and new experience in New Zealand so far.

The questionnaire is designed to draw on your observations and experiences of other workers in your workplace- or what you have seen or know to be happening in the kinds of occupational sector(s) you have worked in. We are not asking for your own personal opinions about these expatriates. Please remember that there are absolutely no “right” and no “wrong” answers to the questions below. We would just like you to express your own estimations about likely preference patterns among New Zealand workers, based on your own considerable expertise and experience with employee relationships in New Zealand workplaces. Please do not hesitate to contact the researcher if you have any questions.

You are able to review or change your answers at any time. The ‘prev’ button allows you to scroll back to previous pages and change your answers.

Please be assured that your responses are anonymous and will be kept confidential. Please avoid identifying any specific organisation or individual in your responses.

Starting work in a new country, such as in New Zealand, can be stressful for expatriates and hosts alike. Local workers can provide expatriates with a) information and, b) social support.

a) Information can include advice about ‘how’ and ‘what’ to expect and do in the expatriate’s new job, the organisation, or the wider cultural environment outside of work.

We would like you to try and estimate the most likely preferences of New Zealand workers who would be working with such expatriates.

1. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **MOST willing** to provide information to?

(Please select one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

2. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to provide information to?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

3. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to provide information to?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

4. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to provide information to?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

5. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to provide information to?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

6. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to provide information to?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

7. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to provide information to?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

8. Why do you think New Zealand workers generally, would have the kinds of preferences you've indicated above?

Before turning over, please go back up the page and check you have circled each country only once.

b) Social support can include assisting the expatriate with emotions experienced whilst ‘settling in’. This includes making an effort to form friendships with expatriates, such as including the expatriate in social groups, both inside and outside of work.

1. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **MOST willing** to support?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

2. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to support?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

3. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to support?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

4. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to support?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

5. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to support?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

6. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to support?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

7. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriates from the following locations would New Zealand workers be **NEXT most willing** to support?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

8. Why do you think New Zealand workers generally, would have the kinds of preferences you've indicated above?

Before turning over, please go back up the page and check you have circled each country only once.

Part 2

Most people, including New Zealand workers, have an idea or image of other countries according to those countries' **ways of living and systems of belief**. Can you indicate how New Zealand workers might generally view each of the following countries, according to the degree of similarity between their ways of living/systems of belief, and those in New Zealand.

1. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries' ways of living/systems of belief is **MOST similar** to New Zealand?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

2. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries' ways of living/systems of belief is **NEXT most similar** to New Zealand?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

3. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries' ways of living/systems of belief is **NEXT most similar** to New Zealand?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

4. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries' ways of living/systems of belief is **NEXT most similar** to New Zealand?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

5. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries' ways of living/systems of belief is **NEXT most similar** to New Zealand?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

6. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries' ways of living/systems of belief is **NEXT most similar** to New Zealand?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

7. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries' ways of living/systems of belief is **NEXT most similar** to New Zealand?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

8. Why do you think New Zealand workers generally, would have the kinds of preferences you've indicated above?

Before turning over, please go back up the page and check you have circled each country only once.

Part 3

Please think about the **living standards, education, health and levels of wealth** of different countries. Some countries will have higher living standards, education, health and levels of wealth than other countries.

Can you indicate how New Zealand workers might generally view each of the following countries, according to which country has the best, the next best, and so on... living standards, education, health and levels of wealth.

1. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries has the **BEST** standard of living, education, health and wealth?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

2. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries has the **NEXT best** standard of living, education, health and wealth?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

3. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries has the **NEXT best** standard of living, education, health and wealth?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

4. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries has the **NEXT best** standard of living, education, health and wealth?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

5. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries has the **NEXT best** standard of living, education, health and wealth?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

6. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries has the **NEXT best** standard of living, education, health and wealth?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

7. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which of these countries has the **NEXT best** standard of living, education, health and wealth?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

8. Why do you think New Zealand workers generally, would have the kinds of preferences you've indicated above?

Before turning over, please go back up the page and check you have circled each country only once.

Part 4

New Zealand workers often compete against expatriate workers, as well as other New Zealand workers, for promotions in New Zealand organisations. Workers may perhaps perceive some expatriates who are eligible for the same promotion as more threatening than others.

All expatriates are fluent in English and have equal job performance, qualifications, background work experience and new experience in New Zealand so far.

1. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriate from the following locations would New Zealand workers see as the **MOST threatening** in competition for a promotion?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

2. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriate from the following locations would New Zealand workers see as the **NEXT most threatening** in competition for a promotion?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

3. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriate from the following locations would New Zealand workers see as the **NEXT most threatening** in competition for a promotion?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

4. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriate from the following locations would New Zealand workers see as the **NEXT most threatening** in competition for a promotion?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

5. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriate from the following locations would New Zealand workers see as the **NEXT most threatening** in competition for a promotion?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

6. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriate from the following locations would New Zealand workers see as the **NEXT most threatening** in competition for a promotion?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

7. Amongst New Zealand workers generally, which expatriate from the following locations would New Zealand workers see as the **NEXT most threatening** in competition for a promotion?

(Please circle one)

Britain Japan Australia South Africa USA India Canada

8. Why do you think New Zealand workers generally, would have the kinds of preferences you've indicated above?

Before turning over, please go back up the page and check you have circled each country only once.

Your Experiences and Reflections on the Questionnaire

1. Did you base your judgements in this questionnaire largely on actual observations?

Yes/No *(Please select one)*

If no, please explain briefly.

2. All things considered, did you feel reasonably comfortable filling in the questionnaire?

Yes/No *(Please select one)*

If your answer was no, please briefly explain.

Demographic Information and Work Experience

To end, we would like to ask you a few basic demographic questions about your background and experience.

1. Gender: Male Female *(Please select one)*

2. What is your age?

3. What is your highest education?

4. What is your current job title?

5. How many years of Human Resource or Industrial/Organisational Psychology have you had to date?

6. What type of industries have you worked as a Human Resource Manager or Industrial/Organisational Psychologist in? *(Please select one or more boxes)*
 - Community, social and personal services
 - Transport, storage and communications
 - Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels
 - Finance, property and business services
 - Manufacturing
 - Agriculture, hunting, fishing, forestry
 - Construction
 - Electricity, gas and water
 - Mining and Quarrying

As defined earlier, *an expatriate is an employee who is sent by their employers to work temporarily in a country other than that of their legal residence.*

7. How many years of experience have you had dealing with expatriates as part of your work?

8. How many years of experience have you had observing relationships between New Zealand workers and expatriates in the New Zealand workplace?

9. Have you ever previously worked as an expatriate yourself?
Yes/No *(Please select one)*
If yes, how many years and/or months was your overseas assignment, and in which country, or countries?

10. Have you had previous experience co-working with expatriates in New Zealand?
Yes/No *(Please select one)*
If yes, how many years and/or months did you work with the expatriate(s)?
From which country did the expatriate(s) originate from?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR KIND CONTRIBUTION

Please select the 'done' button to submit your responses to the researcher.

If you are aware of any unlawful harassment or bullying operating in your workplace, please visit Equal Employment Opportunity Trust, <http://www.eeotrust.org.nz/toolkits/harassment.cfm>, for current legislation and support regarding workplace bullying and harassment.

Appendix II: Summary of Experiences and Reflections on the Questionnaire

Answers to Question 1:

Did you base your judgements in this questionnaire largely on actual observations? (Responses from participants that selected 'no', but were still included in the data set based on their qualifying comment).

- I have worked in an environment with US expats and Japanese expats. The US expats were more accepted and included socially than the Japanese expats, the Japanese also tend to keep to themselves more.
- Some observations and other opinions from statistical data, migration information and experience in the workplace.
- 50:50 regarding actual observations versus anecdotal evidence and direct feedback from expatriates
- I tried to, but have been involved in many industries and with many different people. I find it extremely difficult to get my head around the notion of a general New Zealand worker! It is different in different situations. My observation base is too varied to be able to answer this very accurately. While the answers are largely based on actual observations, I am not convinced I answered it from a consistent observation point.
- On what I read in the newspapers/magazines/discussion with immigrants.
- While we have a significantly multicultural workplace, there are no staff from Japan or Canada, & few from the US or India; we have a number of South African staff, but the questionnaire is difficult to answer, as I think a response would likely vary between white, coloured & black South Africans (we have staff from each racial group); also, most of our staff, regardless of country of origin, are not expatriates.
- Haven't necessarily observed expatriates of all these nationalities (i.e. Japanese, Indian), so these estimates were more based on ideas and feedback from others rather than observations.

Answers to Question 2:

All things considered, did you feel reasonably comfortable filling in the questionnaire? (Responses from participants who suggested they did not feel comfortable filling in the questionnaire, but were still included in the data set).

- I didn't like having to separate people into categories, as expatriates from each country cannot be considered as a whole, but on a person-by-person basis (skills, attributes, personality etc).
- I find it hard judging someone on their nationality, as it is a lot of generalisations.
- I had to use my own experiences and judgments however I tried to be as objective as possible. If the survey was set up with a list 1 - 5 it would have been quicker and easier to complete.
- I felt like I was being 'racist'.
- Very generalised, the way I scored on this survey is not how I would recommend or practise.
- Questions were written in a confusing way - and answers could have been given as a table (rank etc) rather than asking the same question five times.
- It makes me seem very judgemental by country of origin when I judge people by who they are normally.
- I personally felt bias/racist as a lot of people may have the higher qualifications but because some of them cannot speak the language this is hard or their qualifications are not recognised.
- It seems that there is a possibility of institutionalised racism knowing that people have a preference over one nationality to the next.
- I feel that some people in NZ are very open to new cultures in their workplace however some are not and it is difficult to separate people just because of their nationality.
- Not convinced the research construct is valid or reliable. What is a "New Zealand worker generally"? It depends on the industry and work place.
- Probably don't have concrete evidence so am concerned that my responses may not be accurate and objective.
- The questioning was confusing and repetitive - and I'm not sure I feel comfortable speaking on behalf of "all NZ workers".
- I guess that no one wants to put individuals in a box.

- Item response set lent itself to becoming less judicious as the survey progressed.
- Due to the greater difference within cultures than between i.e. individual differences - and it is a forced choice - there wasn't a 'no difference' option.
- The questions draw on perceived cultural stereotypes whereas in reality there is greater variation within groups than between groups.
- Difficult to remember what you had put before. Might be easier to rank them on one page (question)
- In my job I strive all employees as equal members of staff and therefore it felt wrong to distinguish between them.

Appendix III: Summary of Qualitative Responses

Answers to Question 8 of Part 1:

Why do you think New Zealand workers generally, would have the kinds of preferences you've indicated above? (Part 1 asked participants to estimate, generally, the preferences of local New Zealand workers with regards to their preference for providing information (part 1a) and social support (part 1b) to expatriates)

1. Similarity

- Perceived similarities or differences.
- Kiwis perceive British to be most similar and Japanese to be most different.
- Cultural similarities and thus preference.
- I chose Britain first as often New Zealanders align to the UK easily.
- What they have in common with them.
- Closest alignment culturally.
- Similar culture.
- Similar cultures.
- Similar backgrounds values, understandings and shared culture – the less close these are to Kiwi expectations and assumptions, the less support is likely to be provided.
- They originate from countries with a very similar culture to NZ.
- Similar society.
- Backgrounds more similar.
- Cultural similarities.
- Halo effect “like me” mentality.
- Cultural similarities.
- Perceived cultural similarity.
- Most similar to Pakeha values/behaviours.
- Relatedness/sameness.
- Similarities in culture and shared interests.
- Similar background to their own.
- Some economic similarity, culture, philosophies.
- May be similar cultures and lifestyles.

- Australians are most like New Zealanders.
- Cultural resonance.
- Part of reason is ‘commonality’ of work approach.
- Because I think they would be more likely to be most willing to help people “like themselves” first.
- Similarities between cultures.
- Familiarity.
- Perceived cultural commonality.
- They would be most likely to provide information to those from countries which have similar culture to NZ.
- Cultural similarity.
- Cultural similarities/differences.
- Similarity in ethnicity and culture.
- Part of the commonwealth.
- Cultural barriers the further one moves away from one’s own ethnic origin.
- People are attracted to those similar to themselves.
- The more different a culture is perceived, the less likely Kiwis are to offer help.
- I have lived in Australia, Britain and South Africa, which is why these are my top 3, also Canada and America come from like minded cultures. Japan and India would be a bit trickier as our cultures are so different (e.g. some Indians don’t drink etc).
- Common allegiance to begin with.
- Social dynamics of the environment that expats from these countries enjoy... easier connections that mean they might enjoy similar morals, values and work ethics.
- Similar culture.
- Similarities to own social groups.
- Due to similar society preferences/set up.
- Cultural norms.
- Most similar culturally.
- Similarity of cultures.
- Some economic similarity.
- Similar lifestyles.
- Lifestyle.

2. Ease of communication

- It is easier to communicate and understand each other when you come from English speaking countries with similar cultures.
- Language similarities and thus preference.
- English speaking countries first, NZ workers are not particularly tolerant of English as a second language as it requires more work on their part.
- English is the first language.
- Ease of being able to understand the accent.
- Perceived connection with the English language.
- Because we usually communicate to English speaking people more easily.
- Speakers of English language.
- Language.
- Prefer English speaking.
- Easiest would be people who are likely to have English as a first language.
- English language a common denominator.
- Similar languages.
- People do take into account language differences.
- Perceived language barriers.
- Language similarities/differences.
- Easier to support and communicate with people more similar to themselves; less barriers.
- Some people may not be interested in putting in the extra effort to get to know their colleagues or overcome cultural barriers.
- Easier to approach those expatriates.
- Ease of communication.
- No language or cultural barrier.
- Similar language.
- English as a first language.
- Language.
- Stops short of forming friendships if language is a barrier.
- Most similar linguistically.
- They would work with the expatriate most willing to hear what they have to say and share ideas.

3. Sense of belonging and community

- They may find it easier to relate to UK and Australian workers.
- Being comfortable with the style of the person and their culture.
- People like people like themselves, so they will relate more closely to people with similar cultural reference points e.g. Britain, Australia.
- Because of likelihood of making a friendship/finding things in common with expatriates with these countries.
- More comfortable with similar expatriates.
- Shared interests.
- Primarily a reflection of perceived trustworthiness.
- More open to familiar nations than unfamiliar cultures.
- It is easier to build friendships with those who come from a similar background.
- Support cultures they can easily relate to.
- Perceived cultural and social similarities mean that friendships are more easily formed.
- I think there would be more common interests from those countries (common sporting interests, the workers would be able to talk about rugby).
- Generally those with perceived common interests.
- More in common.

4. Stereotypes, discrimination and prejudice

- Stereotypes about ethnic groups/foreigners – prejudice.
- Because they discriminate.
- Bias/prejudice.
- I feel there are strong stereotypes about people from different cultures and that these would influence this decision.
- People do take into account stereotypes.
- People do take into account physical appearances.
- Discrimination.
- Strong stereotypes that exist about the willingness of these other cultures to interact.
- Based mainly on stereotyping.

5. Cultural understanding

- Countries where you have lived in, visited and understand makes it easier.
- Based on knowledge of those countries.

- Lack of understanding and awareness of countries and people least like NZ.
- Cultural understanding.
- Better understanding of one another's culture.
- Lack of exposure and education on expatriate skills.
- Socially I would find it easier to relate to people from countries I know well.
- Understanding of these cultures and no surprises.

6. Shared ancestry/history

- Generational links.
- Cultural roots.
- History of how the respective countries are perceived as allies or 'enemies' etc.
- Historical exposure to cultures.
- Common heritage helps provide basis to form relationships.

7. Perceived need

- I have rated Australia last because I think there is a presumption that there is minimal difference and therefore little information required.
- Who would need the most assistance/integration.
- Appreciation of how expatriates from more diverse cultures are likely to require greater support regarding social integration.
- Would appear to be along the lines of 'need' from the expats.
- People from countries most dissimilar to New Zealand would need most support.

8. Geographical proximity

- Southern hemisphere location.
- Geographical proximity.
- Distance.
- Proximity geographically.

9. Migration flows

- The proportion of people from the UK and Australia within the NZ work environment is greater than the others and therefore a tendency to inform these expatriates.
- Greater numbers coming from those countries.
- A high frequency of migration of workers to and from the UK and Australia might lead to a situation where they are most likely to be supported.
- Maybe as they have travelled more frequently to these countries.

10. Personal gain

- If New Zealanders are the ones giving support and assistance it puts them in an expert or power role so that they are less likely to feel threatened by the expatriate but rather mentor them.
- South Africans who emigrate are elevated on the list in my opinion, despite a vastly different culture, because there is a sense that they are escaping a bad situation and Kiwis tend to nurture those in need or the underdog.
- Interests in the country the people are from.

11. Altruism

- It appeals to their sense of being able to do greater good and make a difference.
- Want to be friendly towards visitors.

12. Expatriate's attitude

- "Arrogance" of others would play a part
- Their openness to NZ being of assistance

Answers to Question 8 of Part 2:

Why do you think New Zealand workers, generally, would have the kinds of preferences you've indicated above? (Part 2 asked participants to rank expatriates' countries-of-origin according to their similarity to New Zealand, as perceived by New Zealand workers)

1. Language

- English speaking countries.
- Language.
- Common language.
- English speaking.
- May view English-speaking countries as most similar.
- Common language.
- English is the first language.
- English language.
- Language.

2. Values, beliefs and religion

- Systems of belief are the same.
- Commonwealth countries will have similar beliefs.
- New Zealanders understanding of beliefs.
- As Japan, South Africa and India have very different religions and viewpoints, i.e., Japan, with their lack of acknowledgement of human rights and EEO.
- Religion.
- Australia, Britain and Canada would be very similar, all being from the commonwealth and all having very similar cultures.
- We are part of the commonwealth.
- Commonwealth countries.

3. Shared ancestry and history

- Perhaps as an individual how 'we' have been treated in the past.
- Common roots.
- Possibly because of links with Britain/colonized in history at some point.
- Ancestors.
- Many historical factors – ancestry.
- Post-colonial experience.

- Because that is where people have come from historically.
- Backgrounds trace back to same origins.

4. Familiarity and relatedness

- Familiarity.
- These are the countries New Zealanders are most familiar with, and have similar cultural reference points to.
- Because this is how I feel when discussing issues with people from these countries – we always try to find what relates most to us (similarities).
- Commonalities.
- If they are white and middle class the similarity will likely be strongest as set out above if the expats are also white and middle class- if this is not the case then order could be completely different.
- Other English speaking cultures are portrayed on our TVs, newspapers, and magazines everyday and so feel familiar.

5. Lifestyles

- As Japan, South Africa and India have very different lifestyles.
- I think the standard of living affected the values of people and therefore a preference could be given to the highest standard of living as the expatriate's values are more likely to align with people here.
- Ways of living.
- Commonwealth countries will have similar ways of living.
- Location, climates.

6. Culture

- Culture of the countries.
- Similar culture.
- Background and culture.
- Cultural backgrounds.
- Culture.

7. Cultural knowledge and understanding

- Existing knowledge/perception of that country.
- Because of the perceived degree of similarity or dissimilarity, either portrayed from others, from travelling, from experience, or from movies/TV etc.

- I believe this would be influenced by what they hear in general about the similarities, particularly with regard to South Africa, and other extreme regarding India.
- Because we get a lot of mainstream TV programmes from USA and UK and Australia, and I think that workers would know more about those countries through that.

8. Political systems

- Politics – government structures.
- May view countries with a similar legal and political situation to New Zealand's as most similar.
- As Japan, South Africa and India have very different political situations.

9. Ease of integration

- I have based these answers on my observations of the ease with which expatriates from the various countries listed have integrated with New Zealanders (at work and at university).
- Their fit into NZ society easier.
- Influenced by movies and television to assimilate to each other.

10. Health and education standards

- Schooling.
- Comparable health, schooling and possibly social systems.

11. Migration flows

- A large number of initial migrants came from Britain.
- Many have holidayed and worked in Britain and Australia.

12. Social and organisational structures

- Family structures.
- Organisational structures, dynamics.

Answers to Question 8 of Part 3:

Why do you think New Zealand workers generally, would have the kinds of preferences you've indicated above? (Part 3 asked participants to rank the expatriates' countries-of-origin according to their social dominance, as perceived by New Zealand workers.)

1. Media

- The way they are portrayed in the media.
- A lot of these perceptions come from the media and from commonly held stereotypes.
- From what is portrayed on TV.
- What they know from the media about the wealthiest countries.
- The exposure of economic conditions and standards in the news and media may influence.
- As more information about growth in economies and standards of living come to light.
- Based on socio-economic data. Note that different South Africa may have varying levels of socio-economic status depending on area, so people may have different views of this country's status based on what area they consider most representative of the country.
- Exposure to TV, news, movies, etc.
- General articles on internet, etc... lots of surveys done these days on 'best place to live'.
- Media representation.
- No doubt the media impacts some people.
- Australia is constantly presented to us as the bar we need to aspire to, particularly in the political media. Canada has been perceived as better off than the USA, perhaps due to less media attention there. As for South Africa and India, we have long been exposed to more negative and low-socio economic images of them than positive messages.
- From what you see in the media may give people a perception of a countries wealth.
- Perceptions often gained from the media these days.
- Based on media images.
- I think they would think this because of what is portrayed in the media.

- Exposure to media portrayals.

2. Knowledge through travel and others' experiences

- Direct exposure to Australia and UK by 'overseas experiences' also have a strong influence on New Zealanders regarding the living standards in the top two rated countries.
- Knowledge of home countries.
- Previously held knowledge of those places through immigrants and their own travels.
- What they hear from friends and acquaintances.
- Because I have visited most of these countries and indicated in my opinion what countries have similar standards of living, education and health and wealth statuses.
- The reasons you hear for people emigrating to NZ are generally around the standard of living and I believe we have all heard the stories.
- Education and general knowledge.
- Based on what we know about those countries, welfare systems, politics etc.

3. Stereotypes

- From commonly held stereotypes.
- Generalization of slums in India and very high education and work standards in Japan.
- Australia is a very close nation of ours and we have believed for a long time that things are better across the ditch.
- With regard to Japan, our standard image is one of a thriving country and very little is ever presented to us on the lower end of the economic scale.
- Quantitative and qualitative perceptions.

4. Power and wealth of countries

- Based on the success of these countries globally.
- USA is a wealthy country, which is why it is at the top and India least wealthy is at the bottom.
- Level of recession effects.
- North America has long held itself up as the leaders of the western world, but the recent economic crisis has shown that the surface of affluence is pretty shallow. Britain too has been clearly shown to have serious issues in all of these areas with the global crash.

5. Health and Education standards

- Availability of education and health is not readily available.
- Due to standards of qualifications recognized worldwide.
- Levels of schooling.

6. Similarities

- Ability to see the similarities.
- Cultural background.
- What is closest to us.

7. Safety and Crime rate

- South Africa has extremes of poverty and wealth so it is hard to know if someone from South Africa has had a good standard of living, but they do live in a very unsafe country so this could bring down their standards of living.
- Levels of danger.

8. Climate and space

- Australia is next best as standards of living would be better than somewhere like Britain due to its climate and its space.

9. Beneficial to the organisation

- Preference could be given according to the best standard of living as it could help to lift company values and expectations especially if that person was being employed in higher levels of management where they have an influence on the company's values and culture.

Answers to Question 8 of Part 4:

Why do you think New Zealand workers generally, would have the kinds of preferences you've indicated above? (Part 4 asked participants to rank the expatriates according to how threatening New Zealand workers perceived them to be when in competition for a promotion)

1. Stereotypes of cultural traits, values and attributes

- If a culture is perceived to be more competitive and to place a greater value on education they are more threatening.
- Good work ethic.
- Stereotypes about hard working cultures i.e. Japan and India – New Zealanders tend to be more laid back.
- Cultural perceptions regarding work ethic and respect.
- South Africans are generally better educated, i.e., better qualifications than others.
- Cultural attributes of competitiveness.
- Putting themselves forward.
- Cultural values.
- Americans and Australians are bred to be competitive, even if they don't compete aggressively; the perception is that they will.
- Way competition works for each country.
- Canadians are at the bottom as they can be perceived as laid back and friendly, looking for different things in the workplace other than promotion.
- Dominant/Alpha personalities and different management and leadership style.
- The arrogance factor in that the South Africans are able to “muster their way in” I have heard others say, and generally they are coming as skilled people.
- The fact that many NZ jobs have been moved offshore to India (e.g., call centers) can mean that Indians in general are seen as job-stealers. South Africans can be perceived as ruthless and self-focused.
- Degree of perceived assertiveness.
- Differences in intelligence and capability.
- Because there may be a perception that New Zealanders are not as advanced or savvy as expatriates.

2. Similarity

- Speaking with a kiwi accent has a very strong advantage over people from overseas.
- The main competition is from English as a first language countries, and very few from Japan.
- Offshore ownership of NZ enterprises that have expatriates from these countries.
- If there are already British immigrants in the management team, there is sometimes the impression that they give jobs to each other as preference.
- The more similar they are to themselves, the more likely [the expatriate is to be perceived as threatening].
- Most like Kiwis – we tend not to in reality reflect diversity when there are people just like us available.
- Because they are most likely the ones wanting to become permanent residents in NZ.

3. Education standards

- Kiwis still tend to have the ‘old school’ thinking that ‘British is best’ in terms of education.
- Tertiary qualifications and education systems are perceived as being on par if not better than New Zealand.
- Perceived levels of education.
- Because of the perception of their education system.

4. Business success and size

- The sizes of the countries where expatriates may come from are all many times the size of NZ with the probability of a bigger pool to choose from.
- Exposure to large companies.
- Knowledge is power and being a small country, New Zealanders who have worked largely in Kiwi companies may not have been exposed to as many situations as the likes of American expatriates.
- Previous job titles, salary expectations.

5. Ease of formation of relationships with New Zealand decision-makers

- Based on the typical ease of building amicable working relationships.
- Even though everyone is equal and can all speak English, your manager also may form a bond with the person they are going to give a promotion to and it

would seem easier to form a bond with a like-minded person (similar background, culture etc).

6. Understanding of New Zealand practices

- Having an understanding of NZ farming practice.

7. Differences

- It is always those who you relate least to that you perceive as the greatest threat.

8. Media

- Perceptions gained from the media.

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